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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains 58 papers on rural special education. Papers present the newest and most innovative promising practices for rural special education, current research, contemporary discussions of theory or theory development, and topics of timely concern. The papers are organized in order of presentation, and are categorized in a topical index under the following subjects: administration, at risk, collaboration and inclusion, early childhood, gifted education, low incidence populations, multicultural education, Native American concerns and community relations, parents and families, preservice and inservice education of rural special education teachers, publishing of professional papers, technology, and transitional school-to-work programs and practices. An appendix provides information on seven presentations available on videotape. (SV)

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ED 381 295

American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES)

1995 Conference

March 15-18, 1995
Las Vegas, Nevada

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

REACHING TO THE FUTURE: BOLDLY FACING CHALLENGES IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

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WELCOME TO THE 1995 CONFERENCE OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION!

Introduction

This is an EXCITING year for ACRES and this conference is evidence of our growth and our promise for the future! As we convene in Las Vegas, Nevada during March 15-18, 1995, we will be working diligently together toward the mission of our organization. As a group of rural professionals and families interested in promoting the health and educational needs of children and youth with diverse abilities, we represent a wide range of various interests, strengths and skills. This conference mirrors that variety with eleven strands of content within the theme of **REACHING TO THE FUTURE: BOLDLY FACING CHALLENGES IN RURAL COMMUNITIES!**

This book is a collection of the papers presented at the conference. The papers represent the newest and most innovative promising practices for rural special education, current research, contemporary discussions of theory or theory development, and topics of timely concern. The papers are organized in the order that they will be presented to serve as a convenient roadmap for your conference work. We have included an index by topic strands so that reference to this important work is possible after the conference as well.

There are two innovative aspects new to this year's conference. First, many of the presentations and other projects have videotape documentation available for viewing in the Video Theatre (see Appendix A: Videotape Presentations). This project was organized by Jack Mayhew, University of Utah. The second unique aspect is the addition of a symposium of papers that address the rural special education needs of Native American communities. In keeping with our theme of Reaching to the Future, Michael Herbert of the University of Utah has coordinated an excellent collection of papers to be presented in morning and afternoon panels for two full days.

The topic strands offered this year are packed full of constructive ideas and reflective thought. Notice from the index at the end of the *Proceedings* that the following areas are represented: Administration, At-Risk Students, Collaborative Education Models, Early Childhood, Gifted, Multicultural Concerns, Parents and Families, Preservice and Inservice Teacher Training, Technology, and Transition. There are a variety of forums to address these issues. The first section of the *Proceedings* includes the HOT TOPIC discussions to stimulate our small group work. Other methods include presentations of PROMISING PRACTICES, THEORY, or RESEARCH. Additionally, the topics have poster sessions devoted to presenting information in a visual display promoting greater personal interaction. All papers address the ways we are boldly facing the challenges of the future in rural special education.

Our authors represent families and professionals from public and private schools, community agencies, colleges and universities, and private consulting firms. We thank each of them for the contribution to the field of rural special education.

ACRES Program Co-Chairpersons,
Diane Montgomery
Kay S. Bull

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NETWORKING, WRAP-AROUND AND COLLABORATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND SCHOOLS

A recent needs assessment project in rural Kansas asked community members to consider the strengths and needs of the current services available to multi-needs children. Interviews involved members of local government, administrators from schools, mental health agencies, child welfare and the courts, practitioners from various service agencies, school counselors, clergy, parents, foster parents, and children involved in services. With these multiple inputs, a diverse and yet interconnected set of perceptions emerged.

Of particular interest were the perceptions of school responsibility, capability and potential. Although the schools could not be separated out entirely from the larger field of community involvement and obligation, there was an overwhelming belief that the school system held the responsibility for addressing the majority of special needs. As often happens, the system absorbing the most responsibility and exhibiting the greatest capacity for intervention came under the most fire. One main theme that emerged during the interviewing process was the increasing responsibility placed on schools to address a more holistic involvement with children with special or multiple needs. Children, parents and local government officials saw the school system as "dropping the ball" when it came to educating the "whole" student. The meaning of education had moved beyond academic to include social, moral and ethical development. With the child involved in the school process six hours a day, the prevailing logic suggested that this was a powerful arena to positively (or negatively) influence a child overall. Concerns such as labeling, prejudice against children with difficulties, lack of communication between parents and schools, lack of support and encouragement for the child, and lack of knowledge on the part of school personnel of such problems as ADHD and other behavior disorders, were seen as leading to ineffective interaction with the child. The schools felt that they were being asked to do more outside of the realm of their expertise of academic education without an increase in monetary or professional support. While attempts had been made within the school systems to develop innovative programming to address the changing needs of today's students, lack of resources and limitations of scope of knowledge prohibited impacting the more severe problems of students in the system.

Each community interviewed was most proud of their sense of community and their willingness to work together to solve problems of residents. There was, however, no organized network in which to collaboratively address needs. Each group interviewed was able to offer ideas on how their services could serve these multi-needs children who were struggling in the school system. It turned out that many of these children were receiving numerous services in the community, yet no communication was occurring to coordinate services. This left the door open for duplication of services or contradictory interventions, leading to confusion and a sense of hopelessness on the part of children, parents and professionals. Parents especially felt isolated and left out of the treatment process, although they offered many excellent ideas on how to work with their child. Often they were unaware if there was any collaboration between service providers.

The purpose of this study was to provide a basis for establishing a collaborative, multidisciplinary network of services that could wrap around the child and the family in a manner that most efficiently utilized the expertise of each system and removed the burden of providing interventions beyond the scope of each agency. Rather than hold the schools responsible for the multi-faceted services needed by these children, organization of varying sources of expertise can allow for effective services to multiproblem youth.

"Wrap-around" services has become a catch phrase in the 90's, yet it is often unclear what is meant by wrapping around a child and family. Wrap-around is a strength-based, family focused, needs driven, community based process that provides comprehensive, coordinated, culturally competent, unconditional care through parent/professional partnerships, interagency collaboration, and flexibility of funding and services. The wrap-around model is based on individualized, needs-driven planning and services. It is not a program or a type of service. It is a value based, unconditional commitment to create services on a "one child/family at a time" basis to support normalized and inclusive options for families and children with complex needs.

Strength-based assessments allow the child and family to be seen as individuals with unique talents, skills and life histories as well as having specific unmet needs. The assessment considers the child and family across all environments and life domains, i.e. residential, family, social, educational, vocational, medical, legal, and safety. Utilizing the family focus allows the collaborative team to create plans that are designed to specifically address the unique needs and strengths of the child and family rather the availability of categorical programs or services. Parents are involved in all phases of service delivery: developing plans, monitoring and evaluating progress.

Wrap-around services are sensitive and responsive to cultural differences. Efforts are made to learn about cultural and ethnic issues facing the child and family and to understand and respect their values.

All activities and services are geared toward enabling the youth to remain in the least restrictive, most normalized environment and to live as normal a life as possible. Services are comprehensive and coordinated to draw upon all available resources, formal and informal, traditional and nontraditional. Further, no child or family is rejected for individualized services on the basis of severity of their problems. A long term commitment is made and providers do not give no matter what they do to jeopardize the commitment.

Wrap around services are designed to provide a collaborative approach to meeting the multiple needs of children in the special education system. Mental health providers are increasingly providing services in the school. Communities are developing volunteer programs to provide for some of the needs of these children. What follows is a list of services that have been developed in various rural areas to address some of the issues identified by this study. These services do not require extreme monetary resources so much as some collaborative effort on the part of service providers to combine resources to better serve these youth. Creation and organization of these services have been effectively managed by rural school systems.

Mental health counselors have been coming to the schools to provide groups in school survival, peer relations, self esteem and social skills. Involvement in these groups is open to all students and operates from a self referral process rather than teacher selection, resulting in a "nice mix" of participants. Further, some groups have been established that have allowed children to participate in community service during the school day. One program had students working with those less fortunate than themselves - the elderly, nursing care residents and the poor. Groups and projects such as these allow for the inclusion of the youth, skill development that will assist in further inclusion, a sense of usefulness, and a recognition of others' difficulties beyond their own. Further, there is a potential for increased empathy on the part of participants who are not identified with special needs.

Parent support groups have also been offered in the school setting. Most of the parents interviewed indicated that being able to talk with others who have similar experiences would be very helpful in dispelling anxiety and finding out about available resources. Further, the issues of problem solving and basic support were prevalent with these parents. Parent support groups offered in the school can also illuminate the struggles faced by these parents, affording school staff the opportunity to more fully understand their experiences, frustrations, and hopes. In many cases, there is a parallel process that occurs in the emotional and cognitive responses of professionals and the families of multi-need children. Often, there are feelings of helplessness, anger, despair, and anxiety around the seemingly insurmountable difficulties of these children and lack of resources to address them, for both the parent and the professional. Recognition of these similar feelings and reactions can do much in creating a strong working relationship between parents and school.

Some school systems have established Student to Student programs which allow for peer assistance with school difficulties. These programs can provide role modeling, tutoring, and relationship building for the special education student. Help with school work, inclusion within the peer network outside of special education classes, and an increased sense of acceptance and understanding are potential outcomes. In most school systems, capable students can be found who are willing to paired with these youth. The rewards for these students are multiple as well. This is an important point since the perceptions of mainstream students do have an impact on the interactions with children in special programming and may contribute to the misunderstandings of and the "peer difficulties" these youth experience.

Volunteers, especially retired professionals, have been recruited to come into the schools and work with troubled adolescents. Many have been willing to be available to the child beyond the school hours. Again, this can provide the needed individual assistance for the youth, increase the scope of the child's relationships, and develop social and survival skills. Most rural communities have found that they have a multitude of potential volunteers waiting to be tapped, with the community being quite responsive once the call has been made.

The religious community has been a terrific source of resources, including monetary, in developing services for special needs children. Churches are a rich source of volunteers. Further, many churches have been willing to provide groups for children with special needs - youth groups particularly focused on working with these youth, sex abuse survival and divorce survival groups to name a few. The rural families in this study consistently found support and guidance in their religious community. A tie between the religious community and services to children with special education needs could increase trust and credibility between the schools and families, provide resources for much needed services, and distribute the burden of addressing the multiple aspects of "holistic" education.

Alternative learning approaches in the schools have also included the use of multi-media learning, from the use of the arts - crafts, music, drama - to the availability of computers to work with kids during and after school. Work-study programs have also proven successful, allowing these youth to access the alternative learning styles that work best for them. Youth in this study found hands-on, active approaches to learning much more helpful than "just sitting", especially since many of the youth carried diagnoses of ADHD or ADD.

Education to all school personnel on ADHD and other learning difficulties has been recommended to increase the understanding of these children and decrease the intolerance for their "differences". Further, several community leaders have suggested rewarding children for accomplishments beyond high academic performance and athletic skill. Many children in special education programs put forth as much energy and effort as students who obtain these awards, yet receive no recognition due to the standards by which they are measured. Such an acknowledgement can improve the positive perceptions of these children, increase self esteem, improve relations between parents and schools, and lend credibility and legitimacy to alternative learning.

CONCLUSION

Although it is often unclear as who is responsible for coordinating wrap-around services for special needs youth, there is clear benefit for the initiation of such collaboration by the school. Inviting the resources of the community to work with the school system to address the needs of the multineed student can effectively meet the expectation of the community that the school holds the greatest accessibility and therefore the greatest responsibility to these children. Further, by drawing on the expertise of others professions related to the more "holistic" development of the child, the educator will be freed to offer academic expertise and education to each child being served. Creating partnerships with parents will provide an avenue to decrease the negative feelings and misattributions from the perspective of both parents and school professionals. All in all, wrap around services can provide the interventions necessary while reducing the stress for all of those involved: children get services from professionals specifically trained to assist them with varying difficulties, parents have the satisfaction of their children receiving quality services and of remaining an integral part of their child's planning, schools can more effectively meet education needs while providing access to education of the "whole" child, the community can utilize a powerful system to share responsibility and coordinate for their special needs children.

Wrap-around services do require the development of relationships among professionals and service systems. One of the strengths of rural communities seems to be their sense of community and willingness to collaborate. With initiation of service coordination, rural communities are prime candidates for successful wrap around of special needs children.

Mary Susan E. Fishbaugh, Ed.D.
Montana State University-Billings
Terry Berkeley, Ph. D.
Gallaudet University

WHAT ABOUT READINESS FOR TEACHERS?

After graduating from a small teacher education college in the Northwest, Ken returned home to Montana and began to interview for a teaching position. Although he had a double major in general elementary and special education, he was one of thousands of applicants for fewer than a hundred jobs in Plainsview, a large metropolitan area (pop. 80,000) by Montana standards. After substituting for a semester, Ken heard through the educational grapevine that the resource teacher in a small rural community 300 miles northeast of Plainsview was taking at least a year sabbatical in order to work on her Master's Degree. Ken was not excited about returning to a town on Montana's High Line. Having grown up in the desolate northern reaches of the state, he knew that winters could be long and harsh and that his social life would be limited to Friday or Saturday high school basketball. But, he desperately wanted a room of his own, ownership of his class, and a "real" job. He was eager for the experience of his first teaching position. After all, he had spent five years as an undergraduate, working fast food during the school year, and construction during the summer to prepare to teach. So, he decided to apply to the Blue Spruce school and to his elated amazement landed the position.

Ken spent the summer reviewing class notes and field experience logs. He collected resources and materials for students pre-K through 12th grade. He suspected that Blue Spruce School did not have a large special education budget and he wanted to arrive ready to start on the first day. But when Ken arrived for teacher orientation in late August, he found himself totally unprepared for his new job.

For a year before Ken began his tenure as a long term substitute, the previous special education teacher, Sarah, the general education teachers, and the Blue Spruce Administration had been planning a gradual shift of special education service delivery from a resource model to an inclusive education model. Ken was expected to begin planning programs for special needs students with other teachers. For six of the seven periods during the school day, he would be in general education classrooms, either team teaching, providing special assistance to any student, or securing needed supplementary resources. He did have a small office next to that of the school counselor, but he was expected to inhabit it only before and after school, during his planning period, or at lunch if he were feeling antisocial and chose not to eat with other faculty and staff in the cafeteria. Besides the shock of so much expected collaboration during school hours , it was understood that Ken would work closely with parents and cooperate with community service and state agencies.

At the end of the first week of school, Ken was numb. He was bewildered by the unexpected demands of his new position and completely bereft of collaborative *strategies. He had been prepared to teach, he thought. He had taken methods courses, he knew all about special education categories and their educational implications, he could write effective goals and objectives, but he had no idea how to manage working with the many varied constituencies to whom he was now responsible. He had no experience, no previous knowledge, and no future direction. Ken felt empty.*

It generally is accepted that small schools in rural areas have more difficulty recruiting and retaining qualified special education personnel than do larger urban school districts. Although many reasons for this have been posited, a major contributor may be the special education teacher's needing to be all things to all people. Even if the school employs the traditional resource model of special education service delivery, the resource teacher instructs students, consults with teachers, counsels parents, educates administrators, and coordinates related service personnel. The special educator's overwhelming responsibilities often result in individual discouragement, exhaustion, and, often, eventual resignation from teaching.

With the recognition of the benefits of cooperative learning for students and collaboration among educators, faculty at colleges of education are beginning to address the need for training in this area. The faculty of Montana State University-Billings offers both undergraduate and graduate courses in collaboration. The graduate course, SPED 504, Collaboration in Education and the Human Services, is a core course in our Master's Degree programs. The undergraduate course, SPED 420, Individualization and Collaboration in Education, is required of all general elementary education majors and elementary/special education double majors. Several recently published literature reviews of beginning teacher characteristics and competencies, however, make no mention of interpersonal collaborative skill (Brookhart & Freemen, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Reynolds, 1992).

Brookhart and Freeman (1992) reviewed 44 studies conducted between 1975 and 1990 describing the characteristics of preservice teachers. They found that although teacher candidates typically are white females, there is a growing variation in both ethnicity and gender. Education majors had high school academic backgrounds similar to non-education majors, but they differed in their extracurricular interests. Education majors tended to be involved with school spirit activities and with activities involving children. They tended to come from lower income homes with less educated parents than their counterparts who were not majoring in education. Students who enter the teaching profession do so for altruistic reasons. They are service oriented individuals. They expect that field experiences will be their best preparation for teaching, but they recognize the potential value of professional education courses. Education majors are confident that they will be good teachers. Their concerns are with their adequacy as teachers, ability to maintain discipline, and ability to establish student rapport. In this review it was suggested that education majors tended to be more traditional than liberal arts majors in their perceptions of the teacher as "teller" and the student as "learner". No mention was made of preservice teacher perception of their role as collaborator.

Kagan (1992) conducted a review of studies in which professional growth among novice teachers was addressed. She limited her review to studies published between 1987 and 1991. She defined "professional growth" as "changes over time in the behavior, knowledge, images, beliefs, or perceptions of novice teachers" (p. 131). In the review, she demonstrated that novice teachers tend to have a fixed image of themselves as teachers, an image that is based upon previous educational experience that is not modified as a result of teacher education course work.

Pratica experiences could change the novice teacher's self-image, but self-reflection tends to be superficial. Novice teachers envision classrooms and students according to their own experiences and their own learning styles or aptitudes. When the practicum experience results in a very different perception of education with learners quite different from the beginning teacher, the novice may view students as adversaries.

Beginning teachers focus inward seeking confirmation of self as teacher first, and validation of success from student achievement secondarily. In fact, student teachers tend to rate their student teaching experience as successful on the basis of their relationship with their mentoring teacher, rather than on their effect on students. Only after their first year of teaching, did novice educators become multidimensional problem solvers. Kagan suggests that preservice teachers grow in five areas over time: metacognition, acquisition of knowledge about pupils, shift in attention from self to pupil, development of standard instructional and management routines, and growth in problem solving skills. She proposes that preservice teacher education faculty should stress procedural rather than theoretical knowledge, and the relevance of self-reflection for professional growth. Again, there is no mention of the need to develop fundamental interpersonal relations skills for collaboration with co-workers.

Grossman (1992) criticizes both the methodology and content of Kagan's review. Her premise is that student teachers must have the opportunity to study the theory of sound pedagogy while they are learning classroom routines, just as students must have the opportunity for problem solving and higher level thinking while they are practicing basic skills and drills. She stresses the importance of understanding the interrelationship of academic development with management strategy. She does not mention the ever increasing expectations for teacher collaboration.

Reynolds (1992) addressed competent beginning teaching in three teaching areas: preactive, interactive, and postactive. Preactive tasks include planning, setting appropriate expectations for students, and choosing curricular materials. In contrast to competent teachers, novices do not grasp subject matter at the automaticity stage. They perceive student diversity as a problem rather than a given. Interactive teaching tasks involve decision making during instruction, managing the learning environment, presenting the lesson, and evaluating student learning. Novice teachers seem to be unable to use larger amounts of information faced during teaching as the basis for making immediate instructional decisions. Beginning teachers are concerned with classroom problem solutions, but not in thinking about them in a systematic fashion. They lack "withitness", and the ability to view teaching holistically. Since novice teachers possess a low level of content-specific pedagogical knowledge, they are unable to adjust the level and pace of instruction to student readiness. In addition, their answers or explanations to student questions may not be on target and often fail to link related concepts. Postactive tasks include personal reflection and multiple forms of student assessment. Novice teachers tend to focus on student discipline, classroom management, and lesson presentation, while competent educators reflect on student understanding.

Reynolds states that preservice teachers should be taught subject matter, be prepared to understand their students' backgrounds, be provided strategies for maintaining a learning community, be well versed in appropriate pedagogy, and be guided in reflection of their own teaching. She believes that we should expect beginning teachers to be able to plan lessons, develop rapport with students, establish classroom rules and routines, arrange positive physical and social classroom conditions, relate new subject matter to prior student knowledge, assess student learning, and reflect on their own actions in order to improve instruction. No mention is made in either her review or her proposals for developing the collaborative acuity of novice teachers.

As teachers begin working professionally, they require the ability to work cooperatively with their peers. As students become more diverse, teacher collaboration becomes more imperative in order to develop educational programs appropriate for each individual. Students who currently are enrolled in teacher education programs, recent graduates, and those just choosing to enter the teaching profession do not have experience with collaboration. They have not witnessed it in their own education, therefore, they envision teaching as an independent occupation. Their self-image as a teacher is more likely to be as a rugged individualist than as a team member. Although college of education faculty are beginning to offer training in educational collaboration, there has not been a recognition of collaboration training as an essential component of teacher education. Collaboration, along with subject matter content and pedagogical methodology, deserves a place in the professional literature.

Students majoring in elementary and secondary education, whether general or special, may not realize that increasingly they will be required to work collaboratively as a partner or as a team member with other teachers. They neither envision themselves as an educational team player nor grasp the profound implications of educational collaboration. It is the responsibility of teacher educators, then, to tell them, to prepare them for a restructured school, and to ready them for a role different from that of an isolated teacher behind the closed classroom door.

We contend that the professional preparation of teachers needs to begin with asking each prospective student: Do you like children? Why? And, at that point in time, put them in a classroom in order to determine if they can collaborate with students. As they continue their studies, more time needs to be spent reframing their understanding of teaching and of educational practice so that they can be effective collaborators who provide effective instruction to students in the most caring of ways.

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Duane R. Tappe
Educational Service Unit One
Wakefield, Nebraska

NINETEEN REASONS WHY SPECIAL EDUCATION SHOULD COST MORE THAN REGULAR EDUCATION

Introduction

Some things in life seem obvious. For example, "It takes a big dog to weigh a ton". There are countless examples in the world of education also. Sometimes however, the general public and our media outlets do not see the some things as obvious as we in the field of education do.

Recent editorials in Nebraska's largest circulation newspaper (Omaha World-Herald) have made it clear that we have a major gap in communication. The newspaper editorial and articles clearly indicate that the writers are dismayed that special education costs are increasing faster than regular education costs. None of my administrative colleagues in Northeast Nebraska schools are surprised by this cost discrepancy.

The idea of cost containment for special education programs in Nebraska has been brewing for several years. In an article in the Omaha World-Herald on January 17, 1993, "Rising Special Ed Costs Concern Officials", Governor Ben Nelson expressed his concerns. He proposed a two-year budget that would increase special education funding by more than $30 million. He was quoted as saying, "Something must be done to get the cost of special education under control. It's an area that has to be looked at."

As a result of these concerns, the Nebraska Unicameral established a Special Education Accountability Commission. In a working draft for public discussion dated September 27, 1994 the following information was included.

> "Many believe that special education stands at a cross-roads in the State of Nebraska. Intense State budget pressure and recent fundamental changes in the financing of k-12 education have escalated the level of scrutiny on cost increases for special education programs; cost increases which have outpaced growth in nearly all other areas of the State and school district budgets for more than a decade. (For example, while the total increase in special education expenditures for the years 1978 to 1993--using federal, State and local funds--averaged 10.82%, the total expenditures for regular education averaged 6.65%.)"

It is a fact that special education programs in Nebraska have grown substantially over these past 30 years. In 1965, a publication was issued by the Nebraska Division of Instructional Services entitled Special Education in Nebraska. It was written by Donald Sherrill, who later went on to become

Director of Special Education for Lincoln Public Schools. The publication states that "The Nebraska special education program was established in the State Department of Education in 1949. Legislation provides that the Special Education Section may financially reimburse local school districts for initiating and maintaining special education programs." The section on financial reimbursement for school districts was amazing in it's simplicity.

> "Nebraska school laws also specify that such financial help shall be available after an amount equal to the regular per pupil cost of the district has been spent for the education and therapy of the exceptional child. The amount of state funds for the education and therapy of these children shall not exceed the following amounts per annum: (1) physically handicapped children, six hundred dollars per pupil, and (2) educable mentally retarded children, three hundred dollars per pupil; provided that in no instance shall the total amount of state aid and the per pupil cost exceed the per pupil cost of the special education program of the servicing district or four thousand five hundred dollars per teacher or therapist, whichever is the lesser. The Special Education Section also reimburses local districts for trainable mentally retarded children an amount equal to that paid by the County in which the child resides up to four hundred dollars per child.
>
> Approval of reimbursement funds is conditional upon appropriations provided by the Nebraska State Legislature. Nearly 8,000 children were enrolled in special education in Nebraska during the 1964-65 school year."

Further evidence of growth in special education numbers is taken from the 1993-94 Nebraska Special Education Statistical Report. In 1993 Nebraska school districts reported 37,112 children with verified disabilities. In 1979 school districts reported a total of 30,007 students with verified disabilities. Therefore, the growth from 1979 until the present time, is approximately the same as the total number reported in 1965.

The Omaha World-Herald, in an article on "Special Education on Rise; Officials See Many Causes", included a graph illustrating special education enrollment increases in the Omaha area from 1984 to 1994.

See Appendix A.

In 1984 the State of Nebraska appropriated $47 million dollars to Nebraska school districts for special education costs. In 1994, $115 million dollars have been appropriated. For the 1995-96 school year under Governor Nelson's plan, the appropriation would rise to $122 million. From then on, the Governor will be recommending a cap on spending for special education programs.

The Omaha area is not the only area that has shown increased growth in special education programs. There has also been substantial growth in the rural areas. Norfolk Public Schools, in northeast Nebraska, has reported tremendous increases in these past four years. In a Norfolk Daily News article dated November 15, 1994, Superintendent Randy Nelson reported to board members that "the number of students participating in special education programs in Norfolk has grown from 424 students four years ago to 541 students this year - an increase of 27.6 percent. Special education expenditures in Norfolk has increased from $882,580 four years ago to $1,453,743 this year. This represents a 64.7 percent growth in four years."

The Norfolk Public Schools special education increases appear to be a statewide phenomenon. Special education enrollments from 1979 to 1993 have increased, even though overall student enrollment from 1979 to 1993 has dropped from 294,607 students to 285,917 students. As a percentage of enrollment, special education has increased from 9.2% to 11.5%.

See Appendix B.

All of the above listed information can be summarized as follows: **Nebraska public schools have experienced a substantial growth in numbers of children being served by special education programs over these past 30 years. This is especially true over these recent ten years. Increased numbers of students with disabilities has resulted in increased numbers of staff members to provide programs for these students.** An increase of staff members is the major reason for the increase in special education costs. According to State Department Special Education Final Financial Report data for the 1992-93 school year, the following information is significant. Allowable costs indicate that salaries accounted for 77.12% of overall expenditures. Fringe benefits accounted for 19.24% of claimed allowable costs. Salaries and fringe benefits totaled 96.36% of allowable claims. Therefore, all of the other allowable costs, such as in-service, staff mileage, supplies, equipment, etc. only amount to 3.64% of the total costs.

Nineteen Reasons

When listing 19 reasons why special education costs should be more than regular education costs, the reasons all relate back to the fact that there are more students and the need for more staff. The 19 reasons are listed as follows:

1. Overall increase in the number of children with disabilities. The numbers have more than tripled since the 1960's. There are numerous factors that contribute to this increase including general societal factors. According to the Nebraska Tax Research Council, Nebraska State expenditures for welfare and Medicaid have increased from $20 million in 1974 to $225.6 million in 1994 during the time that special education costs increased from $11 million to $115.4 million.

2. Staff costs. Students in special education require a much lower teacher/student ratio than students in regular education. School districts must compete with hospitals, rehab. units, and private corporations in order to attract specialists such as physical therapists, occupational therapists, speech pathologists and audiologists.

3. Keeping kids alive. Medical science has been very successful in helping very fragile children survive their birth and early years. Many of these children are technology-dependent, require tube feeding, need extensive therapies and need extensive staff time after they are placed in a school program. Thirty years ago these children probably would not have survived.

4. De-institutionalization. Since the late 1960's Nebraska has been withdrawing students from institutional placements and returning them to their local towns and school districts. Very few placements have been made into these institutions in the past ten years. Previously, many of the students with severe mental retardation, severe visual handicaps, and severe hearing impairments were placed in Nebraska state schools or facilities. As such, they were the financial responsibility of the Department of Public Institutions, the Department of Social Services or some other state agency.

5. Extended school year. Depending on the nature and severity of their disability, some children require additional days in their school year in order to prevent regression and provide for their individual needs of self-sufficiency and independence. Approximately 50 students in northeast Nebraska (Educational Service Unit One area) are attending school for 215 days compared to a regular school year of 175-180 days.

6. Extended school day. Some students, because of the nature of their disability, require special programs and placements that create a school day much longer than the traditional 8:30 to 3:30 school day of students in regular education. This writer is aware of several school districts that pay one agency tuition for the standard school day and another agency for "awake time" in their residential program for a total of a 16 hour day.

7. Assistive technology. Assistive technology devices for special education programs can be very high tech, sophisticated, electronic equipment in order to meet the individual needs of all children, despite the severity level of their disability.

8. Inflated equipment costs. Materials for special education seem to cost substantially more than materials for regular education. Because of lower production needs, companies charge more for their products.

9. Costs of inclusion. In the November 1994 issue of the School Administrator several articles report that some educators and parents

fear that inclusion practices will drain resources from the system because of increased staff needs and duplicate programs.

10. Accessibility. Many school districts have made major improvements in their facilities to comply with standards for the American Disabilities Act. The Nebraska Department of Education shared in the costs of these improvements up until the 1993-94 school year. Most frequent renovations are for remodeling restrooms, cutting curbs, installing ramps and adding special lifts for student access to upper levels.

11. Ages zero to 21. Nebraska special education programs entitle children with disabilities from date of birth through the age of 21 to services. Additional personnel are needed in special education for the zero to five age group, for homebound instruction and early childhood centerbased programs that are not the responsibility of regular education. Transition services for the older students after high school, are also the responsibility of special education personnel.

12. Litigation. Special education is governed by many more rules and regulations than regular education. Funded advocacy groups insure that parents understand their rights. Court cases demand specific programs and placements for certain students. These requirements are usually far in excess of any education costs incurred in regular education.

13. Private school placements. In addition to some students being placed in private facilities, special education is also responsible for providing services to public school students that attend parochial schools. This accounts for a loss of staff time in the public schools. Some districts have also purchased mobile learning units to park near the parochial schools in order not to violate federal "separation of church and state issues".

14. Excessive paperwork. Special education requires much more paperwork and meeting time that runs the gamut from referral forms to Individual Education Plans (IEPs) that are not required of students in regular education. Additional paperwork requirements in Nebraska such as Medicaid in Public Schools (MIPs), also use valuable staff time in order to secure the necessary funding.

15. Transportation costs. In rural Nebraska, sometimes students with disabilities need to travel great distances to attend an appropriate program. This is either achieved by districts purchasing expensive vans with lifts or by paying parents mileage. Itinerant staff members providing special services also must travel to a far greater extent than teachers providing regular education.

16. Shifting of financial responsibility. In the past 20 years there have been numerous incidences in Nebraska where financial responsibility

has transferred from one state agency to another. An example is that at one time physical and occupational therapy services were paid by the Department of Social Services. There seems to be an annual tug of war about the financial responsibility for students that are Wards of the Court.

17. New labels. In 1965 the Nebraska Department of Education recognized seven different types of special education programs. Categories and program types have increased substantially since that time with recent additions being for students with attention deficit disorder, autism, and traumatic brain injury. Some educators feel that learning disorders are being recognized more easily and the criteria for students with learning disabilities opens these programs up to increasing numbers of students.

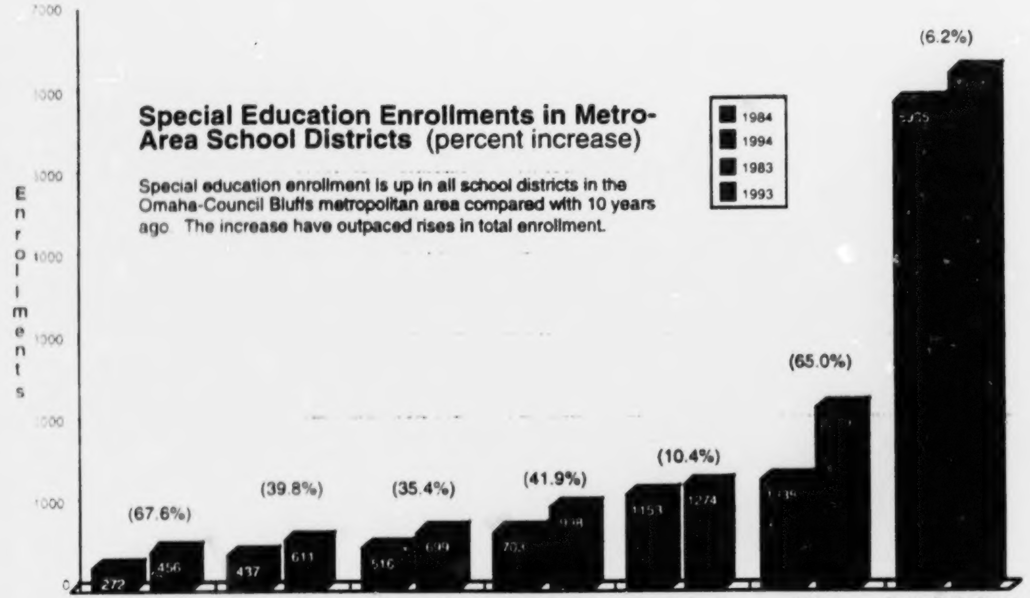
18. Regular education pressure. Regular education administrators and teachers have been more than willing to refer some of their students for special education services. This is especially true in recent years for students with behavioral disorders. They are referred in order to reduce the violent behavior in their classrooms.

19. Victims of our own success. Because of the success of Nebraska's special education programs, the field has been flooded with referrals from a variety of sources. School districts have dutifully provided Child Find information to the public. Child Find activities have accomplished the goal of early referrals and identification of students with disabilities. Medical personnel, Social Service workers and other interested parties have made special education referrals very soon after the child's identification.

It is probably reasonable to assume that there are more than 19 reasons why special education costs have increased so dramatically. The point is, that special education costs truly have increased more than regular education costs by approximately four percent a year since 1978. The question is, what can be done about it? It does not seem reasonable that an arbitrary cap on special education funding will do much to control the costs. The effect of the cap would be to shift the costs back to the local school district.

A shift in cost does not really do anything to address the 19 or more reasons why special education costs are increasing at a rate faster than regular education costs. Perhaps we need some fundamental changes in the state laws governing special education. Maybe some of these costs should be the responsibility of regular education, the Department of Public Institutions or the Department of Social Services. It is possible that special education, by itself, cannot manage a dog that weighs a ton?

Appendix A



Sources Omaha-Council Bluffs metro area school districts

Darrell Forbes The World-Herald

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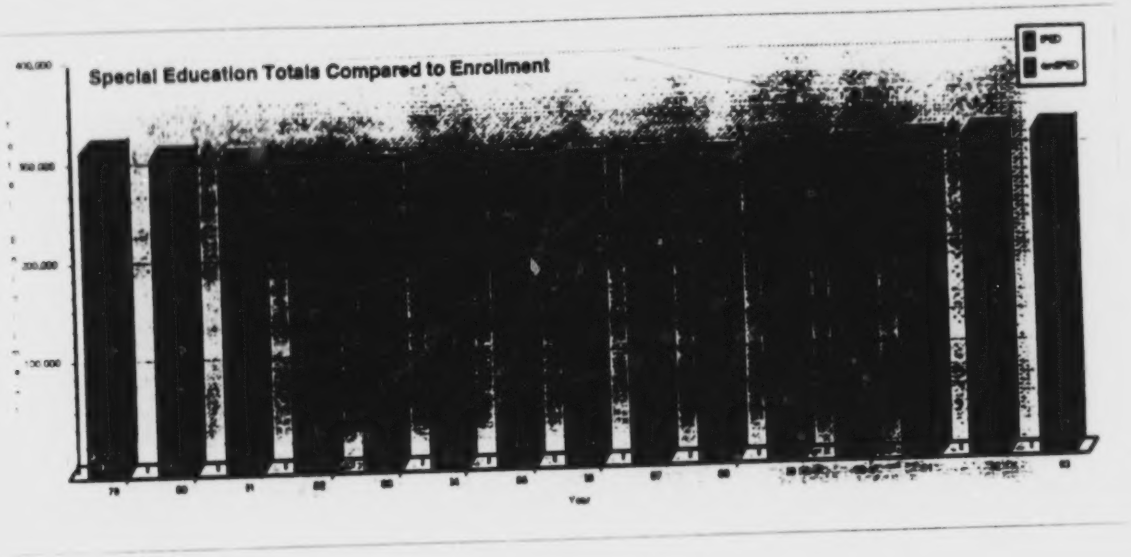
Appendix B



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Diane Montgomery, Kay Bull, & Denise Cutbirth
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK

CREATIVITY IN RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION SETTINGS:

AN EXAMPLE WITH TRANSITION

> *"We can't find appropriate placements for our students in the job market."*
> *"There are no jobs for our normal kids, let alone those with handicaps."*
> *"The support for students and parents, whether it may be legal, medical, or community, is not available!"*

Although these may be oft repeated phrases or stereotypical ideas about rural education, there are other ways to see the hand dealt to the rural special education administrator. It is reported that rural schools by their nature have unique characteristic and concerns differentiating them from larger schools or those schools located in urban areas. Some identifying characteristics affecting special education are potential difficulties in recruiting and retaining trained personnel (Helge, 1989; Lemke, 1994: Sarkes, 1990), access to current research or innovative program models (Helge, 1989; Howley, 1991), extreme variance in low incidence occurrences (Helge, 1989; Cates, 1991), availability of related services legal or medical support (Helge, 1989), and appropriate or abundant community support and resources for transition (Elrod, Devlin & Obringer, 1994; Walls & Price, 1993).

Creativity is an answer! We can take each of these perspectives and turn it around, twist it and make it a support for good, positive, creative education of rural children we can creatively view most other problems in alternative ways as well. Let's see how this change might work.

The purpose of this discussion is to encourage a view of rural characteristics as strengths or opportunities to express creativity and innovation. Although often perceived as deficits or limitations, rural characteristics may be used to spawn the solutions for a better education for all students. Various creativity techniques can be formally (forced) or informally (intuited) applied to identified issues. As an example of this premise, the issue of providing transition services in rural areas will be examined using the creative problem solving process (Osborn, 1963; Parnes, 1981) and other various creativity training techniques.

One of the principle goals for schools is to prepare students for entry into the world of work and self-sufficiency. However, of the 2.5 million identified people who have exited the special education classroom (Morris et. al, 1993), only 23% have become gainfully employed or attended college. Forty percent are considered underemployed, earning wages at the poverty level. Approximately 26% are unemployed or are receiving welfare subsidies. The drop-out rate for regular education students (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991) in

1989 was 4.5%. During the same period, the corresponding rate for students with disabilities was 26.7%. Despite the emphasis seen on mandated issues, many students leaving special education classrooms are entering a segregated, dependent, non-productive environment. These statistics reinforce the crucial need for effective programs and services to facilitate transition from school environment to the work place.

This identification of needs points in the direction of clarifying the issues. This is called "the Mess" stage in creative problem solving. Many factors impact transition in the rural setting. Identified characteristics of rural settings that impact transition to supported employment include (Elrod, 1994):

1. A small, homogeneous economic base. This economic limit may result in a restricted number and type of available job opportunities to match to the unique needs of individuals with disabilities
2. Travel time and distance between job sites. Distances provide difficulties for the student, given a lack of public transportation, and often limits professional follow-up.
3. Lack of services and trained staff. Many rural communities lack vocational rehabilitation services which hinders transition planning.
4. Synergistic advantage of rural areas. It is easier to identify the school community in a rural setting. Defined as the families of children in school and their immediate neighbors, the school community becomes the local community in a rural setting. All children participate in one system, so a feeling of "ownership" can develop. Additionally, the population sparsity requires people to be "generalists," each individual able to participate in many activities.
5. Less formal politics. System modification and change is simplified because of the accessibility of both school and non-school personnel.
6. Rural oriented work ethic. Physical labor is the foundation of the work ethic in rural settings. Primary importance is placed on the ability to be self-sufficient.

Three additional issues have been identified as having a crucial impact on transitions in the 1990's (Thompson, 1993): self-determination; secondary school reform; and public policy alignment. Issues of independence, such as self-sufficiency and informed decision-making capacity, are being addressed in rehabilitation and educational literature as essential for integration into the community. Increased responsibility for self-management aimed at self-determination would distribute responsibility for learning among teachers, parents, and students with the primary control remaining with the students. Secondary school reform and public policy alignment speak to the issue of providing students with disabilities opportunities for gainful employment while still in the school environment with time to monitor the transition into the community. Students may exit school with both a diploma and a resume/portfolio.

The challenge before rural educators is to meld the positive elements which exist in their particular setting in order to create new solutions for problems encountered in transitioning students. By using creative problem-solving strategies, uniquely different solutions to problems may be generated. For instance, combining a solid skills training with a supportive academic training responds to the either/or argument. In rural schools, it makes more political sense to intensify job skill support, and employers will get involved on this basis.

The five stages of the creative problem solving model (Parnes, 1981) include fact finding, problem finding, idea finding, solution finding, and acceptance finding. In the first stage, fact finding, all information in the form of questions, facts or feelings is assembled concerning the "mess," the question or problem being studied. Answers to who, what, when, where, why and how aid the fact finding process. During the second stage, problem finding, alternative definitions are explored in order to produce an exact definition of the true problem. Each child with capabilities and limits is a new, true problem. Knowing both the wants and needs is important here! In idea finding, the third stage, divergent thinking produces brainstorming for solutions to each of the problem definitions produced in the second stage. Ideas are freely accepted and judgment is deferred. In solution finding, ideas are evaluated by a set of generated criteria and one or more of the best ideas are selected. Finally, in acceptance-finding, an action plan is produced for implementation of the solution. The audience in transition is potentially large and diverse (students, parents, school personnel, employers, human services, personnel). Each stage of the model incorporates both divergent and convergent thinking. Think about the ways the transition issues can be addressed.

Intuitive creativity involves unpredictable inspirations which occur spontaneously. Forced creativity occurs when a person or group uses one or more techniques to clarify a problem and generate solutions. Various techniques may be used in order to complete each step of the model which supplement intuitive creativity.

Creativity Techniques

An example of a forced creativity technique is attribute listing. With this technique, the thinker (or group) lists principle characteristics of the problem and then generates ideas for improving or changing each attribute. Each community has rich resources among its members which can be listed.

Morphological synthesis is a second creative technique similar to attribute modifying. One set of attributes or dimension of a problem is placed on an axis in a matrix form. A second set of attributes is listed on the other axis allowing for all possible interactions between the diverse sets. A two or three dimensional matrix may be used to explore the relationships between the variables. By forcing one set of characteristics and words against the second set, many new ideas may be created. For example, transition curricula solutions may emerge in a matrix modeled with job categories by local employers by skill area development.

A third type of creative thinking technique is called a checklist. A checklist is a series of considerations or questions used to discover all possible aspects of a problem or process. Various checklists are in the literature, such as Osborn's verbal checklist which incorporates the verbs adapt, modify, magnify, minify, substitute, rearrange, reverse and combine to generate new ideas which lead to product or process improvement.

By selecting one of these creative thinking techniques and applying it to the identified problem of transition in rural communities, unique solutions, to an individual's transition problem can be proposed. The questions become, How can educators in the rural setting assist each student in transitioning to an independent, integrated and productive lifestyle in a community environment? or What program components can be provided to accomplish this objective given the unique attributes of a rural community? As individual problems are solved a knowledge base and a placement potential list is developed. One soon discovers that new students may not be too different from old students and the process becomes easier as one goes along.

Let's attempt to apply the creative strategy, of morphological synthesis, to generate unique solutions. Attributes to be listed on one axis may be the old "problems": small economic base, distance between locations, lack of trained staff, synergistic community, less formal politics, and rural work ethic. On the second axis, let's list program strength characteristics, such as self-determination, communication skills, community training sites, acquisition of job skills, etc. By combining these characteristics, new and unique solutions may be generated.

1. Small economic base/community training sites
   Establish 6 sites (two from the school setting) which can be used on a rotational basis.
2. Lack of trained staff/acquisition of job skills
   - Use people who may lack formal vocational training but are versed in appropriate job skills as job coaches, such as retirees, volunteers, graduating seniors, etc.
3. Synergistic community/self-determination
   - Allow each student with disability to choose three of the rotational job sites to serve as an internship during his sophomore year........... and so on.

Summary

These and many other solutions could be emerge by using creative strategy techniques to solve educational issues. As Davis (1992) states, "Civilization is a history of creative ideas that have been modified, combined, transformed and transferred, building upon each other, into ever new creations. Without creative ideas and creative thinkers, we still would be living in caves and trees, picking berries and clubbing bunny rabbits for breakfast. Civilization will continue to have problems, and creative people will continue to provide solutions" (p. 11).

Transition problems will not be eliminated by the application of creativity models and techniques, but if applied in a conscious way, there is never a need to say to a parent, "I just don't know what your child can do when he/she leaves high school." By using creativity there is always an abundance of choices. Often, that is all that most need and the most that all can expect!

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Vicky Primer
Kansas State University
Manhattan, Kansas

Beverlyn Cay Brown
Topeka, Kansas

VOICES OF THE CHILDREN: WHAT SPECIAL EDUCATION KIDS SAY ABOUT THEIR PROGRAMMING EXPERIENCES AND NEEDS

In the spring of 1993, an extensive needs assessment was conducted across rural communities in the state of Kansas, in an effort to determine the existing services and community strengths available to multi-needs children. This process originated as part of the funding initiative through a grant to develop wrap around services. The purpose of this assessment was to determine how these pilot communities could be assisted in better serving these children and their families. As part of the assessment, interviews were conducted with a cross section of community persons using a set of 28 preestablished questions under five main areas of interest. Those areas included introductory and general questions about the community, collaborative bodies and interagency teams, parent and family involvement, planning process, and funding.

Like many rural areas, Kansas has been faced with a rising population of special needs children, a demand for effective, creative services and a decrease in resources available to meet the demand. Further, traditional services no longer seem to address the issues faced by multi-problem youth today, creating a professional quandary for those invested in assisting these children.

Interestingly, the children in this study were able to offer some insights into how they could better benefit from the attempts at intervention into their difficulties. Consistent themes emerged as the children shared their experiences and observations regarding their special education experiences more than any other aspect of their treatment, indicating that their school experience may be a very powerful influence in their daily lives. These young people offered insight into their behaviors and resistances to the interventions that were being offered in the classroom, in the school and in the community. Themes which emerged included a motivation to learn via support of alternative styles of learning in the classroom; a desire to participate in school activities, yet in noncompetitive programming, especially in the area of athletic programs; a sense of being different and misunderstood by school personnel and students alike; a desire to participate in planning for themselves; needed support for parents, and life goals of independence, a good job, making good money, and having a family.

Motivation to learn. "Success is getting good grades, keeping my morals and staying on track", as one youth put it, encompassing the consistent sentiment of the youth in this study. The desire to be successful in school was evident, yet for many seemed far too difficult to achieve. Many believed they were not getting the help they needed with their school work, not because their teachers didn't care but because they recognized that their learning styles did not fit the traditional didactic approach. One child suggested that it would be helpful to get more assistance in the classroom because " I ask too many questions for my teachers." Another child pointed out that he really liked learning but "I don't like sitting - I need hands on, activity learning." The issues of applied learning were systematic across interviews. Further, children recognized that they were different (translate: difficult) and assumed the "blame" for not being able to respond and achieve in the manner they would like.

Feeling different and misunderstood. When asked what they would most like to change about their education experience, these youth overwhelmingly stated that they felt different and misunderstood by school personnel and students alike. "Change the people - their attitudes, their judgments. Make them nicer. Change my self esteem." " I would go live on an island where there are lots of animals and hardly any people. Animals are nicer." "Success means being able to find people who understand." These children suggested that there be more counseling in the halls and teacher support when there are difficulties. They felt that such interventions would help them to maintain control when they felt ridiculed by the other students. There was a theme of being blamed for disruptions because they were less capable of handling the stress of provocation, although they rarely started the altercations. Many felt that staff at the schools were rude to them and unapproachable. All of them did, however, feel that there were some teachers specifically within their program who were supportive and approachable. There was also a sense of segregation from the mainstream i.e. different lunch hours, segregated locker areas.

Desire to participate in school activities. The youth in this study wanted very much to be a part of their school's activities. They felt that coaches were intolerant of them, and because of their special needs, they were excluded from organized sports. Further, these kids suggested that there needed to be organized sports and recreational programs that were geared for fun and not competition. Since the two main sources of recognition and success in the traditional school system are academics and athletics, these youth felt especially excluded.

Desire to participate in planning. As with most junior high and high school students, these participants had a desire to develop some sense of agency in their lives. They did not feel that they had any say in what was happening for them in the school system. While the children did acknowledge that their parents *sometimes* asked them for their input and *sometimes* listened to them, they gave no credit to professionals in this area. Moreover, as one youth stated: "I don't get asked much. When I say no, I still have to do it anyway." These children believed that the school did care about them but felt that there was no follow through on any plans that were developed for them. Some described the school system as "too lazy to do anything"; others saw them as all talk.

Support for parents. Parents were seen as having to work too hard to get services for their children. An overall sentiment among these children was the fact that there should be more help for parents i.e. transportation, respite, and local resources. These kids did feel that their parents had access to school personnel but were totally unaware of any collaborative efforts between parents and professionals. There was a prevailing attitude of professionals vs. parents, with the youth feeling particularly defensive for their parents.

Life goals. The expressed life goals of these children were really no different from those of the average youth today. These goals included independence, getting a good job and making good money, and having a family. Frustrations included the lack of employment opportunities in rural areas, with the few jobs going to the most "capable". Again, issues of self esteem were impacted by this exclusion in the job market. Alternative school placements (private, parochial, a district outside of their home school) were the norm with many of these youth, yet one of their main goals was to be able to successfully attend public school.

Comparison with adult viewpoints. Much in line with their children, parents felt that the schools were not meeting their children's educational needs. Many felt that the IEP did not meet the child's needs but was not followed anyway. Although parents were involved in the meetings regarding their children, they did not feel included in the decision making process. They felt that they were not listened to, that the schools dictated to them what would happen, that they were not made aware of options for programming, and that there was often an adversarial position on the part of the school. They saw the schools as too easily willing to let their child fail. Collaboration was often seen as finger pointing. Parents and children expressed very similar experiences and perceptions. It seems that the parents' anxiety exacerbated the anxiety of the youth and vice versa, creating a vicious cycle that inhibits effective navigation of the system.

Schools felt the pressure of rising costs and caseload sizes in special education while funding was not keeping up with demand. Teachers were very aware of the need for alternative programming, but saw the lack of space and resources as prohibitive. Further, schools felt that they were very inclusive of parents in all aspects of planning and implementation.

Community people saw schools as inflexible in arranging meeting times and allowing teachers the time to work on special planning for a child with difficulties. They felt that too many children were expelled from school or removed from school activities as a source of punishment. The importance of parental and child involvement was recognized by the community as a whole but was not acted upon in most cases.

IMPLICATIONS

It is apparent that the school is the focal point of intervention for parents, children and service providers. School is seen as having the most potential for immediate impact and is thus more quickly identified as a source of concern. With children spending a large part of their day in the school setting, those with special needs require a number of resources traditionally not available in the school. Today the educational system is being asked to provide social and emotional services along with the academic mandates. Since teachers and other school personnel are traditionally trained to provide the academics, rather than expect teachers to be "jacks of all trades" (and masters of none), there are people in the community who are trained to provide services to round out the socialization/educational process required in today's world.

The findings of this study suggest that the service recipients feel misunderstood, disenfranchised, and blame themselves for not being able to respond to traditional approaches in education. Children and their parents both experience a sense of exclusion in the process of planning and feel that they are often blamed for the difficulties encountered in servicing this population. It may be that these children are parroting their parents' sense of disillusionment. Or it may be that the parents have become hypersensitive and protective due to the reports of their children's experiences. Or it may be that both are actually experiencing similar situations when working with the school system. This is not to say that this is intentional, in fact, from the schools' perceptions, parents and children were included in all aspects of planning and service provision. More likely, this indicates a lack of communication and understanding of the needs of all parties involved. Finding ways to better hear the families involved in special education services and to support and acknowledge efforts and struggles may the major step necessary to improve the responses of children to special education programming.

When families and professionals come together around a difficult problem such as special education services for multiproblem youth, there is a tendency to view each party as separate and distinct, imposing artificial boundaries resulting in assumptions that may or may not be accurate. For example, in this study, children assumed that the school system was "too lazy" to follow through on any planning. Parents assumed that the school did not want to deal with differences in students. School personnel assumed that if parents did not attend scheduled meetings, they did not care. It is often the case that it is not the situation that is problem i.e. need for special services, but rather the communication about the need that creates the problem. It is important to focus on keeping the involvement collaborative rather than heirarchical. As a matter of course, many of the participating communities relied on the court systems and child welfare to provide the impetus for parental co-operation. There was consistently expressed surprise that parents were as quickly co-operative as they were when simply asked to be involved in meetings and planning. The use of strength focus, respectful interactions and hospitable interchanges stood out as the most effective ways of eliciting family co-operation.

It is not enough to simply be invited to meetings, as the parents and children have told us. It is also important that all of the members have an equal voice in the planning and access to information regarding available services. The goal is to allow all of the participants to express their views. Multiple perspectives will bring on a wider perspective of the problem, allowing for the clarification of inaccurate assumptions and the forging of a more effective process to working with the multiproblem child in the school setting. Children, parents and school personnel all operate from the same goal - maximizing the educational potential of special needs children. Frustration generally results when all parties do not feel heard and respected. each group brings to the process their own expertise about the problem at hand and, if heard, can contribute to the resolution of the difficulty and meeting of the common goal.

CONCLUSION

The strengths of special education programs in rural Kansas seem to lie in the area of communicating caring to the student. Teachers who are available and supportive are a consistent theme within programming, whereas teachers outside of the program are inconsistently approachable. While students believed that the school cared about them, they did not feel that their education needs were being met, nor did they feel entitled to ask for services they thought would be helpful. Specifically, the majority of the issues related to difficulty for these youth had to do with communication and understanding - inclusion, respect, self esteem. Teachers and school personnel cannot do it all, nor can the youth or parents. They can, however, actualize their desire to assist children in special education to meet their personal and academic goals through collaborative interaction and open communication.

Charles W. Belcher
Las Cruces Public Schools/
New Mexico State University
Las Cruces, New Mexico

MODIFICATION OF THE CURRICULUM FOR STUDENTS WITH DIVERSE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Statement of the Problem

Elementary teachers need to modify the curriculum in their classrooms for a variety of learners including students with disabilities, students from diverse ethnic and cultural settings, and with dominance in languages other than English or that of the community or school. An aspect occasionally omitted in published examples is including the modification in the assignment in such a manner that no separate modification is required.

A recent needs assessment of general music teachers in New Mexico, a rural state, indicated a desire for increased information on methods to meet the needs of all students, including those with diverse educational needs in the classroom. The needs assessment addressed the teacher's experience and perceived levels of comfort related to the education of students with diverse educational needs in their classes and other related aspects of the student with diverse educational needs presence in the classroom. These factors were identified due to the perception of some school districts and school sites that the music class is a natural site to mainstream the student with disabilities with their age appropriate peers to achieve a free appropriate public education (FAPE) as identified by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 (IDEA) as reauthorized in August 1993 by Congress (20 USC §1400). The results of the needs assessment included 100% of the returned instruments reflecting a perceived lack of adequate knowledge related to IDEA and FAPE among the teachers attending.

In a recent needs assessment of education majors enrolled in an elementary education preparation course at New Mexico State University, the emergence of the perception that a student was "disabled" if their language differed from the teacher. In light the lack of any legislation currently enforced or litigation which identifies this factor as a disability, the need arises to change this perception to another focus.

Review of the Literature

A Definition of Multicultural Education

Nieto (1992) defines pluralism as the realization of the existence of differences between people in society. Pluralism also consists of three basis models to understand the society of the United States of America; Anglo-conformity, cultural pluralism, and melting pot. She defines Anglo-conformity as "a form of pluralism based on the concept that all (people living in the United States) need to conform to the dominant European American, middle-class, English-speaking majority", and a melting pot as representing the idea or concept that differences need to be wiped out to create an amalgam that is devoid of traces of the original cultures and is uniquely American. Nieto defines cultural pluralism as "a model (of pluralism) based on the premise that (people living in the United States) have a right to maintain their languages and cultures while combining with others to from a new society reflective of all our differences," and multicultural education as "(a) process of comprehensive and basic education for all students. Multicultural education challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism...that students, their communities, and teachers represent. Multicultural education...uses critical pedagogy as its underlying philosophy and focuses on knowledge, reflection, and action (praxis) as the basis for social change" (Nieto, 1992, p. 307).

Multicultural and bilingual education

If the hegemonic or Anglo-conformity/melting pot definition is utilized to describe this population, there is a deficiency present which can be/should be addressed. Building on the deficit model, if the child has a deficit, then there is a piece missing, one that should be there but is not. If the child were an object, we might consider it broken and proceed to fix it. Educationally, we might consider a special education placement because the student is disabled as there is something missing that everyone else has. The multicultural child would "rightfully" be found in the special education classroom.

Conversely, if the pluralistic definition of "multicultural" is used, the student is whole and complete, nothing requires or is need of repair or is "broken." With this definition, most multicultural students are members of regular classes, just as their non-multicultural peers are members of regular classes. Students who have a culture, language, or socio-economic status different from the teacher are not broken, do not require repair or remediation, and they are not disabled (Sleeter & Grant,. 1988, 1994).

Gonzales (1979) identifies five major components of multicultural and bilingual education. First, the staff compositions patterns within the organization, the school, should reflect the pluralistic nature of American society. Second, the curricula should be appropriate, flexible, and unbiased, and should incorporate the contributions of all the appropriate cultural groups. Third, the perspective of difference in the view of the languages of cultural groups should be affirmed by the organization versus the perception of a deficiency in the population. Fourth, the instructional materials including the selected texts should be free of bias, omissions, and stereotypes. The materials should be inclusive rather than supplementary, and should portray individuals from different cultural groups in a variety of occupational and social roles. Finally, the educational evaluation procedures should assess how well the materials encourage better understanding and respect for humankind in addition to assessing the content of the curriculum and the instructional materials.

Nieto (1992) states that if multicultural and bilingual education is to be understood, it must not be examined in a isolation but be explored in the personal, social, historical, and political context. The consideration must include a self-examination the educator's personal, social, historical, political experience. The educator must consider the experiences of the individual's personal experiences within the society in question, the individual's personal and group history, and the political experiences of the group and the individual.

Multicultural education and multicultural education approach is based on two basic premises; equal opportunity and cultural pluralism. By recognizing the innate worth of diversity and its place in the society of the United States, the alternatives of Anglo-conformity and a melting pot are immediately eliminated as they are based on a monocultural system which either resembles no individually distinct culture or determines the standard to be the dominant European American, middle-class, English-speaking majority. If the majority culture is defined it is above, then a minority culture would be represented by any other group. By this definition, "minority" would be a misnomer in any geographic area where the greatest number of people were from a minority population, such as any group other than the dominant European American, middle-class, English-speaking majority (Carpenter as cited in Baca & Cervantes, 1989; Grant & Sleeter, 1989; Nieto).

Concomitantly, while multicultural and bilingual education is based on the premises of equal opportunity and cultural pluralism, the goals of multicultural and bilingual education must contain the following four points. First, multicultural education must promote an appreciation and understanding of the cultural diversity of the United States of America. In addition, the alternative choices for people without regard of the person's race, gender, disability, or social-class background must also be included with such an educational system. Third, all children would be helped to achieve academic success within the system. Finally, a school employing multicultural and bilingual education must promote an awareness of social issues involved in the unequal distribution of power or opportunity, or cultural capital (Grant & Sleeter).

Stone and De Nevi (as cited in Baca & Cervantes) stressed five points in the promotion of multicultural education. First, America possesses diverse and linguistic heritages which are untapped natural resources worth preserving and extending. Such a diversity of language and culture enriches all of the members of the larger society. Second, bilingualism should be encouraged in the schools. The inclusion of non-Anglo contributions and material through their interweaving into the curriculum by teachers should be utilized to enrich all students. Third, the literature, music, art, dance, sport, and games of diverse groups should become part of the curriculum. Fourth, minority (non-White) teachers must be "sought, recruited, trained, retrained, and supported..." to work with non-Anglo pupils (p. 7). Finally, Information and meetings related to school which are intended for parents of minority group students must be made available in all appropriate languages.

Petch (1991), Sanders , LeClaire, Hall, and Ellison (1994) identified some strategies for modification of the curriculum. Rossett and Rodríguez (1988) identified three key components to a teacher preparation program, either for pre- or in-service training of bilingual educators including, (a) a formal training component of four courses required for all bilingual educators, (b) community involvement, (c) and academic collaboration within the school and post-secondary institution. Multicultural education is not a set of courses for the public schools or for teacher preparation programs such as exist in universities and colleges. Rather, multicultural education is a philosophical orientation or attitude that permeates the curriculum in all its aspects and often represents a basic philosophical change (Baca & Cervantes).

Multicultural Music Education

The Des Moines Public Schools Mission Statement states the "(d)istrict will provide a quality educational program to a diverse community of students where all are expected to learn." In the mission statement for the music education program, the district states it will "provide a quality music education program for all students in grades K-12." As a result of the music education instruction provided by the district, the "student will...develop positive attitudes toward a variety of music in their own culture and in diverse cultures of the past and present" (Svengalis & Johnson, 1990, 1). The district states that the standards as identified by the Iowa State Department of Education Standards will be followed by the district, in addition to consideration of the guidelines for the Music Educators' National Conference (MENC). In the Iowa standards, high school students enrolled in music classes are required to receive instruction in performance and non-performance areas of music. Included in the non-performance areas are courses in: basic musicianship as an expansion of general music experience; music composition, theory and history for students who might consider music as a career; and the cultural arts as a survey of music and society.

In the section on planning for the future, the Des Moines district identified four focus areas, a commitment to the music program, teacher re-education and in-service training as a specific group, equipment, and travel and enrichment funds. These foci were stated as including resources other than just financial ones. Under the philosophy subheading in the district's commitment to the music program, the move to a view of music as both process and product in the development of the whole child was presented, and related to the need to re-educate music teachers and to restructure the instructional system to allow sufficient music instruction to develop the child and to produce desired outcomes. Also, the district identifies a pressing need to facilitate the re-education of teachers and their in-serving as a specific group within the faculty to meet the needs of the current student population, in addition to the need for more funds for travel and enrichment such as for clinicians, projects, and curriculum and music for special projects. All of these impact on the inclusion of multicultural and bilingual aspects of the student population (Svengalis & Johnson).

Application to Students with Disabilities

As special education is a civil rights related process, the apposite action is to begin with an overview of key points of federal legislation and litigation related to curriculum modification, mainstreaming, and the nature of the IEP. Special education law hangs on two major laws, the American with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) as reauthorized by Congress in August 1993 (34 CFR §504) and IDEA. The current ADA originated in 1973 when Congress passed P. L. 93-112 which required nondiscrimination of Americans with disabilities (formerly "handicapped") in the work place and in the society. However, this law was infrequently used as the basis for litigation until recently, particularly in education. Its primary focus was as it related to the rehabilitation and inclusion of visibly disabled individuals, such as those who have physical disabilities.

IDEA originally began as the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (EAHCA) occasionally referred to as the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA, P. L. 94-142, 34 CFR §300). EHA built on action taken in the early 1970's as P. L. 93-380 which amended P. L. 91-230 in requiring the least restrictive environment (LRE) for students with disabilities. When IDEA was passed in 1990, noncompliance with the federal law affecting special education moved into the realm of a violation of civil rights with all of the accompanying penalties. Prior to that point, noncompliance with the law was punishable by a withholding of funds by the federal government, which was independent of possible action by the parents of a student with disabilities or the student directly.

The premier piece of litigation utilized in special education is the landmark civil rights case, Brown v. Topeka Board of Education of 1954. In this case, the Supreme Court stated that separate but equal schools were inherently unequal. The application of this action for special education impacted on the practice of separate schools for students identified as having one or more disabilities. Schools districts had justified separate school for the disabled as needed to meet the special needs of this populations, just as they used the same position to justify separate schools for students of color. Brown v. Topeka held these schools and practices as violations of the individual's civil rights.

Two pieces of legislation in different decades which address the needs of the disabled to an appropriate education in the LRE and compliance with the conditions stated in the IEP. In Mills

v. Board of Education, the Washington District Court in 1972 found that schools must provide an education in the LRE based on P. L. 93-380 and subsequent legislation, and required the districts to comply with these laws. The district court in West Virginia in early 1993, in action brought in support of a student with disabilities (Doe v. Withers, 20 IDELR 422, West Virginia Circuit Court, Taylor County, 1993), in relation to compliance with the conditions of the IEP for a student with disabilities who needed modification to the testing situations, the court only held liable the classroom teacher for noncompliance with the identified modifications (after dismissing the school district and the principal from the proceedings) with the terms of the IEP as they related to the modifications in the classroom. The students in teacher preparation programs must be made aware that a full continuum of services is required by IDEA (34 CFR §300.551) and that such a continuum would include time in the regular or general education classroom.

Appropriate modifications or curriculum adaptations need to be made to meet the individual needs of the student. At the same time, the changes must take the form of modifications versus mutilation of the curriculum as an excuse to include one or more students. The importance of maintaining the integrity of the curriculum as much as possible must be stressed to insure that the students all receive the complete curriculum, as it is the apposite course of action.

Application for the disabled multicultural and bilingual student

Grant and Sleeter (1989) present that learning styles, cultural background and gender tend to overlap to a degree. While not all members of a cultural or gender group learn in the same manner, there are patterns which exist among members of different groups tend to approach given tasks. Such patterns develop due to the factors of child rearing practices and role expectations which children are expected to fulfill as adults. The techniques of lecturing, reading the text, and answering the questions will not be the apposite selection to meet the educational needs and learning styles of every student in the class (Grant and Sleeter, 1989; Sleeter and Grant, 1988).

Consideration of the student's experiential history and the relevance of the curriculum to that experience is another key factor. As every student must learn the basics of reading, writing, mathematics, and language to obtain a good job and participate fully in society, the importance is placed on learning the skills and material as opposed to the manner the student learns. Therefore, teachers must consider the student's experience in preparation of classroom materials and lesson construction. Teachers who are considered skilled at capturing and holding the attention and interest of the disabled multicultural and bilingual student can also identify examples, introductions to lessons , and topics that are of interest to these students. Such teachers can also locate and use curriculum materials that make the students want to learn (Grant and Sleeter, 1989; Sleeter and Grant, 1988).

While the students who speaks little or no English, or does not speak standard English, needs as a primary goal to learn English in a nonthreatening and supportive environment, they tend to respond positively to teachers who are interested in learning about their personal histories. Teachers who have difficulty working with students with limited English or are unprepared to teach non-English-speaking students can learn to do so successfully. The use of peer tutors for more than translation and language only but also as language role models who convey a sense of friendship, that the teacher cares enough to provide a person the limited-English student can consult when a language problem arises can be beneficial to the teacher,

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peer tutor, and the limited-English student (Grant and Sleeter, 1989; Sleeter and Grant, 1988).

Conceptual framework of special education and the disabled multicultural and bilingual student

Education in the United States is based on the premise that all students in the society have a right to and should receive an adequate, meaningful education. This is true for both special education and general education. All students, whether or not identified as disabled, must be provided the opportunity to develop their abilities to the fullest degree. To accomplish this, the educational system must allow for the individual differences that exist in the student population. This is the philosophical basis for the exceptional student's right to an appropriate education and the foundation for the creation of local guidelines and practices. However, while the strengths and abilities of the disabled student are considered in the formulation of an education plan and the placement of label is avoided, every disabled student should receive specific assistance that relates directly to the area of disability.

A second goal of special education relates to the location where instruction is received by the student with the regular classroom being the preferred site when appropriate. This is in harmony with the intent to include the disabled student with nondisabled peers to the greatest extent practicable or to return the student to that setting as soon as possible. Third, due to the unusual and special needs of the disabled student may possess, instruction needs to be provided by a specially trained teacher. This instruction may be in the form of direct contact with the student or support to the regular classroom teacher. Finally, as in Bilingual education and multicultural education settings for nondisabled students, special education emphasizes the importance of parent involvement in the areas of assessment, planning, and program implementation (Baca & Cervantes).

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Valerie Fischer
DPI - Special Ed
Minot, ND 58707

"BIGGER ISN'T ALWAYS BETTER: MEETING THE CHALLENGES OF TRANSITION IN RURAL COMMUNITIES"

INTRODUCTION

Transition. The process and partnership of moving from one place to another. Change. It is evident when parents take their child to the first day of kindergarten, when the decision is made to attend college, marry or relocate. At any phase in our lives, transition is apparent. As in these examples, the extent of success depends on the cooperative planning of partners.

The same principle applies to transition from high school for special education students. Preparing students while still in school for adult roles is vital to reducing the statistics regarding high unemployment and substandard wages experienced by many individuals with disabilities. Partnerships formed between community and classroom on behalf of transitioning students are able to tailor needs and outcomes. The small community has not relented to metropolitan pressure, but rather, developed an "attitude" of rural development and renewal designed to "take care of its own." Rural communities have achieved so much with so little from a need to be self sufficient.

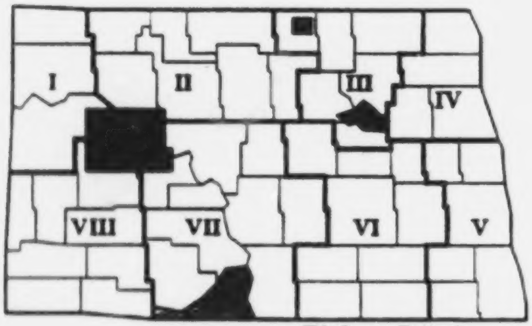
As a partner, schools have also become a force in rural communities and, as a result, turn to their community as a curriculum source. This partnership has become the most successful collaboration for transition. This is not a new concept by any means, and has been in place and used successfully by educators for decades. But the inclusion of special education has brought a new focus to the local "team" who initiate, implement and evaluate services to ensure youth receiving special education will have the opportunity and necessary supports to become caring, productive and social citizens. Quality education and outcomes do not have to be compromised in even the smallest of communities. To portray a picture of North Dakota, visualize 668,800 residents sharing 71,000 square miles (9.4 residents per sq mile) in a state ranked 50th for violent and property crimes (Boyd, 1991). Picture 128,085 students in grades K - 12, a graduation rate of 97% plus for high school seniors, 639 schools (including 11 one room schools) and a teaching staff of 7078, of which 1107 are special educators, for a ratio of 18 students per teacher (Messmer, 1994). Paint a labor force of agriculture, retail services, government and manufacturing, to a State unemployment rate of 3.5%, as of October 1994 (Boyd, 1994). This, is rural at its best.

NORTH DAKOTA'S PROJECT

In pursuit of IDEA compliance and developing "best practices" for transition services, the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, Office of Special Education, and the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation jointly received funding for the five year grant **Project TransND** in October, 1992. Transition services are directed to those students receiving special education, ages 14 to 21. A five member Steering Committee includes key representatives from Special Education, Vocational Rehabilitation, the Division of Developmental Disabilities, Job Services, and Vocational and Technical Education. Their role surrounds a cooperative interagency initiative with the goal of improving statewide transition services. A State Coordinator is responsible for adherence to and compliance with the grant's goals and objectives, and to coordinate field services. Twenty statewide stakeholders serve on the State Transition Planning Council (STPC) and address statewide implementation of transition. The Council includes educators, parents and agency representatives.

Primary **TransND** project goals are to:

- design, implement and improve an integrated transition planning and service delivery system that meets the needs of youth with disabilities and that considers the unique characteristics of North Dakota;
- identify and provide resources essential to support and integrate transition planning and service delivery; and
- develop and deliver training to support the participants optimal use of the transition planning and service delivery system.



As identified in the state map, the grant's focus and strength is regional service delivery. The balance of statewide systems change and local autonomy allows for flexible planning and implementation of transition services. The Transition Grant divides the state geographically according to the eight governor's planning regions with North Dakota's four Indian reservations making up the ninth region. Each region has a Regional Governing Board made up of local stakeholders who oversee activities surrounding transition.

REGIONAL CONCEPT

Each Board employs a Regional Transition Coordinator (RTC). The role of the RTC is to coordinate an interagency network to assist individuals with disabilities transition from high school to adult community living with emphasis on a statewide system change process. The RTC responds to the regional needs, issues and concerns of local stakeholders(students, parents, teachers and adult service providers). The RTC is available to address such concerns through:

- one on one or group consultations with students, teachers parents, consumers or agency personnel;
- provide information and expertise regarding school, community and agency support;
- coordinate an interagency transition network;
- work with students and families to plan and facilitate transition;
- attend and facilitate IEP meetings;
- develop transition related materials;
- act as a liaison between school, home and agency providers;
- provide training/inservice;
- collect data through needs assessment and follow up studies.

Each region identifies goals and objectives, with consideration of their unique characteristics. This allows for successful transition given the local economic, population, and labor resources available, yet with the collaboration of state personnel and resources. Commonly referred to as "grassroots", North Dakota's regional approach allows for local ownership, administration and evaluation of services. Each region has the opportunity to create local advisory committees in such parameters as a school, community or county, where local stakeholders determine and carry out transition. It is in this context, where transition is evident and used in the smallest of communities across the state that success becomes obvious. According to Job Service North Dakota's 1990 Census, 95% of ND communities (347) had a population of 2500 or less (Boyd, 1991).

The Native American population on the four reservations identifies a distinct value system, depressed and rural economic conditions. These factors can not always be included in typical programming. Specific goals and objectives taking these issues into consideration result in minority appropriate transition directives.

Other facets of the **TransND** grant include a media center, which currently displays 1100 items to include videos, articles, books, projects, etc. Additional funding is sub-contracted with agencies to provide independent living skill training to students, teachers, parents and agency personnel to supplement current curriculum and available resources. This is accomplished by classroom sessions, one-on-one instruction, inservice training, informational meetings, media publications and referrals. A data management portion of the grant allows for development of a statewide system of data collection and distribution in compatible formats useful for local facilities to plan future services/curriculum, adult service needs and log student activities. Data management reports are pending from 205 follow-up special education student interviews. These students exited the school during the 1992-93 school year. These will be used for comparison studies with general education exitors from the same year.

REGIONAL COORDINATORS

Components of the **TransND** Project have been identified as pivotal to the success of the Project, which could be duplicated. The role of the Regional Transition Coordinators is the nucleus of the Project and has proven to be an essential component. Initially, regional goals were identified following a needs assessment conducted by each RTC with dozens of transition stakeholders within their region. This is repeated annually to ensure movement towards "systems change" and to establish local goals within the realm of all partners. The availability of the Coordinators ensures compliance and implementation for all partners. Their role in coordinating and facilitating meetings, processes and outcomes has served as a model for teachers and agency personnel. The RTCs demonstrate and instruct teachers how to be creative with curriculum to build opportunities for students in non-traditional, but successful methods of instruction. Providing training and information as to rights and responsibilities for parents and students have contributed to their increased role, support and success in transition.

The RTCs identified a focus on student determination. Too often they found students who did not understand their disability, how it related to their ability to learn, and the need for alternate methods. Not only did they not understand it themselves, they had no inclination that they would need to explain this information to a prospective employer, classmate or post secondary school in the future. Students need to know how to explain any limitations and also to ask for what they may need in the classroom or work place. It is not possible for any student to feel healthy about his/her disability unless it is understood and how it affects that student as an individual, in the classroom or on the job, with peers and family. Making successful decisions about personal future goals can only be done if the student has full knowledge about the implications of a disability. Information about disabilities, self determination, decision making and goal setting can be accomplished through curriculum, class discussions, group and individual projects and individual meetings with students. Addressing these issues at the time of the IEP is practical to include input from parents and teachers as well as to address their role to facilitate the student's growth.

LOCAL OWNERSHIP

The employer-employee relationship of the RTC and Board reaffirms local ownership. Although geographically isolated from each other, the nine RTCs meet monthly to collaborate, exchange information as to activities and complete projects. Inasmuch as the RTC's are governed by regional direction, a foundation of activities is in place to ensure a level of compliance with parallel state goals and objectives. Training has been a significant issue for the RTC staff and the Project since its inception. Staff development and curriculum instruction for teachers and agency personnel include transition components, laws and legislation, IEP goals and the community as a curriculum resource, as well as interagency development and facilitation. Training has been on a level beyond "getting the word out", which encompasses the "how to" concept for small groups where questions, sharing and case studies are easily accepted.

COLLABORATION AND PARTNERSHIP

Subsequent to the success of the regional response to transition and the role of the RTCs, interagency cooperation on behalf of the project has become exemplary. Issues surrounding collaboration and partnership became forefront initially as the Project needed a local approach for partners to "buy in" to transition. Without collaboration, the recipients were not part of the process or outcome. The goal was to see tangible results at a level where participants benefit from the return (investment) from their represented perspective. The vision of personal and social rewards contribute to the cause beyond the requirements of the law. Such is the case for establishing local advisory committees, which add to the incentives for input, development and evaluation of services. Local advisory committees allow parents, teachers and agency personnel to decide what will happen and work toward that end.

Examples of cooperation include State and regional interagency agreements. Both identify those participating agencies, their agreed upon role and signed commitment for transition service delivery. In Fargo, two special education units and an independent living center have cooperatively arranged for direct services for students ages 18-21 who have met their graduation requirements, but have uncompleted transition needs, primarily job related skills. Fiscal collaboration is evident in sharing of building space and staffing. Cooperation is apparent in parent information sessions in conjunction with agency personnel to provide a complete portrait of services available to students, as well as provide information as to planning and options for work, post secondary programs, community participation, recreation and leisure activities and independent living.

Community and school partnerships offer students the practical application of curriculum in work experiences as well as increased interpersonal/social skills. To initiate dialogue, informational meetings, breakfasts, inservice training, etc. between schools and community leaders and employers have been scheduled to ask, "What can we as a school do for you to better prepare our students for you? How can we make better employees for you? How can the community enhance the current curriculum in the work place and support training?"

To begin the process of local collaboration, identify goals. Examine school/community relationship as they currently exist, and then as the best they can be. Identify and commit those individuals who must implement the change to "own" the change. Understand the importance of knowing what measures will identify when you reach those goals and implement the logistics compatible with the traditions of the school and community. Participants will need to understand how to change and problem solve for effective results and growth. Then "take the show on the road" and let others know how your program was developed and implemented. A suggestion for success is to hold regular meetings, give participants a sense of belonging/ownership, monitor progress regularly and enforce positive directions (celebrate successes!) for members who may otherwise dwindle. As a footnote, follow the new procedures, ensure maintenance and provide an avenue for change and revisions as goals change.

WORK OPPORTUNITIES

The implementation of community based curricula is a valuable tool for successful transition and balances academics with vocational education. Guidelines for educators and employers address how to establish an employer site, regulations pertaining to the Fair Labor Standards Act and criteria for offering pay and/or credit. As an example, the Department of Public Instruction (Messmer, 1994) reveals the median district high school population in North Dakota to be 76 students (with ranges from 3238 to 12 students). It can be challenging to provide small communities and small schools with ample and varying resources for transition planning; they will experience far greater opportunities for personal instruction, interaction and evaluation. Region I for example, has eight secondary schools, while Region VII has 46 secondary schools. Establishing similar goals would not allow for the unique characteristics in each region, while local identification results in tailored objectives.

An underestimated relationship in the transition process which can maximize success is that of the school and home. What happens at home can enforce or dismiss both the school and community efforts for transition. Including parents and students at all levels signifies their role in the "team." Throughout the state, several local advisory committees and regional governing boards are chaired by parents, who make up over 40% of the membership.

LOOKING AHEAD

Development and growth of the TransND project, as Fiscal Year Three commences, includes various media projects to encompass a student transition folder, a guidebook, newsletter, student checklist and transition video (pending production). Other projects include tracking of special education drop-outs and identification of alternate programs, peers attending and participating in the IEP meeting, planning and maintenance IEP meetings, and various demonstration sites for pilot projects.

Trends to be explored in the remainder of the grant focus on needs for both special and general educators as well as paraeducators, exploration and identification of those Project functions which can be targeted to exist independent of the Project, and additional demonstration sites of community based transition workshops with guidelines for statewide implementation. Developing a culture for learning in methods beyond the classroom in rural communities will be a priority. In North Dakota, nursing homes are found in most communities and offer employment in a variety of positions, whose skills can be utilized in the event of relocation and promotion. In conjunction, rural communities need to consider the advantages of designing and implementing programs, such as with nursing homes, to help students transition from school to work in their community.

Keeping this generation of students "at home" will be important for those communities searching for economic growth and stability. Systematic reform and strategies for changes in rural schools and communities involve a process at the school, community and classroom levels, which allow for student exploration, interactive modes of instruction and performance based assessments.

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Sonya C. Carr, Ph.D.
Southeastern Louisiana University
Hammond, Louisiana

A PRESERVICE MODEL FOR PREPARING SPECIAL EDUCATORS IN RURAL AREAS: SPECIALIZED COMPETENCIES

Recruitment and retention of qualified teachers remain critical issues in education today. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, total pupil population is projected at 54,412,000 in 2000, an increase of approximately eight million pupils in ten years (1990-2000) (Digest of Educational Statistics, 1993). This increase in the number of students in school raises concerns about teacher shortages in certain areas. In the U.S. Department of Education's Fifteenth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1993), the states reported that 26,934 more special education teachers were needed during 1990-91. The greatest number of teachers were needed for students classified as learning disabled and emotionally disturbed, as well as students in cross categorical programs. Thus, the field of special education appears to be experiencing some of the most significant shortages.

Need for Special Educators in Rural Areas

With the implementation of P.L. 94-142, significant progress was observed in the provision of special education services in rural schools (Helge, 1984). The enormous growth in the numbers of children served in special education in rural areas placed burdens on rural communities, resulting in funding inadequacies and shortages of qualified personnel. Rural personnel attrition rates were described as "alarming" (McLaughlin, Smith-Davis, & Burke, 1986), with attrition rates of 30 to 50 percent considered the norm for rural special educators (Helge, 1983). This finding is not surprising as the majority of teachers, trained in urban areas, have not been prepared for the unique challenges of rural education. Today, the shortage of qualified special education personnel in rural areas remains critical. Rural school districts often employ unqualified personnel to serve children with disabilities (Helge, 1991b). As Director of the United States Department of Education, Judy Schrag discussed federal level concern with the higher attrition rate of rural special education personnel (Berkeley & Lipinski, 1991, p. 19).

The shortage of qualified special educators in southern states, and particularly in Louisiana, is critical. Factors contributing to this shortage in Louisiana include low teacher salaries, the reduction/elimination of tuition exemption for teachers taking certification courses, and higher tuition costs. The state of Louisiana is largely rural with approximately 68 percent of residents living outside of the urbanized areas of the state. Almost half of these residents live in communities with populations of fewer than 2,500. There is tremendous educational, socioeconomic, and cultural diversity reflected in this population and rural special educators must deal with unique aspects of rural communities for effective service delivery to children with disabilities.

Need for Rural Special Education Preservice Training Programs

University training programs are needed that assist teachers in developing the necessary competencies and prepare them to be responsive to the challenges they will face in rural communities. However, teacher training programs typically do not address the unique aspects of rural schools. As Helge (1991a) noted, "Problems traditionally associated with implementing comprehensive special education programs in urban areas are compounded in rural areas. Vast land areas, scattered populations, and inadequate services are obstacles to program development, particularly when highly trained personnel and specialized facilities and equipment are required" (p. 9).

During the 1980s and early 1990s there has been increasing recognition of the importance of rural special education preservice training programs. Personnel recruitment and retention efforts are likely to be more successful when universities develop programs focused on rural education. Thus, training programs are needed that develop teacher awareness of the needs/characteristics of rural communities and the ability to participate in the design and implementation of individualized service delivery systems. As Helge (1991a) noted "just as urban models are not appropriate for rural communities, there is no one rural service delivery model for the great variety of rural subcultures" (p. 10).

In the development of the Project ReSET program a literature review was conducted to examine necessary competencies for rural special educators. Special education has typically been viewed as a field of "specialization," in terms of disability, level of service, grade level setting, etc. However, as Helge (1983) emphasized, "generalists" are needed due to the lack of specialists and low-incidence personnel. Rather than serve as experts, "generalists" perform a variety of tasks and teach a wide variety of subjects to children of various ages and disabling conditions. Teacher training programs should purposefully prepare teachers for the "generalist" role (Silver, 1987). The role of the rural special educator in Louisiana, as in many states, requires skills crossing disability, level of service, and programming option boundaries. While generalists are needed, there is evidence that teacher training programs must also emphasize development of competencies in areas not traditionally addressed. Inadequate teacher preparation has important implications, with inexperienced and unprepared teachers more likely to leave the field than experienced teachers (Billingsley, 1993). Specifically, there is evidence that effective rural special educators need competencies in working with families and in technology.

Training Preservice Teachers to Work with Families in Rural Areas

The advantages of parent-teacher collaboration in the education of children with disabilities have been widely recognized, and there is strong support for the idea of training special education teachers to work with parents and families (Shea & Bauer, 1991; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1990). Research in special education has increasingly demonstrated the benefits of family involvement in the education and habilitation of children with disabilities (e.g., Bailey, 1987; Dunst, Leet, & Trivette, 1988). In addition, PL 94-142 and PL 99-457 mandate parent involvement in the identification, diagnosis, placement, and programming of children with disabilities. However, increased recognition of the importance of family coursework in teacher training programs has focused primarily on preparation of teachers of infants and toddlers with special needs. Yet, all teachers working with children with disabilities should develop certain competencies to facilitate communication and family involvement in educational programs. As Kerns (1992) noted, "Special and regular educators will be working with families whether they want to or not" (p. 53).

Working with rural families clearly requires unique approaches and specialized competencies. Distances from home and school, topography, isolated communities, and sometimes distinct cultural and social values must be considered. Hansen (1987) observed that individuals residing in rural areas confront a different set of problems than do individuals in urban areas. Specifically, the high percentage of poor living in rural areas, underemployment, higher percentages of younger and older community residents, and a sense of isolation, are cited as contributing to the unique problems faced in rural areas. Recent research on the incidence of at-risk factors for children and youth, indicates the highest incidence in the following categories: dysfunctional family, poverty, suicide/depression/low self-esteem, minority and poor, child with alcoholic parent, and child abuse (Helge, 1991b). Helge's study indicated that rural children fared worse than non-rural children in 34 of 39 statistical comparisons.

Family involvement in educational programs for rural children with disabilities cannot be over emphasized. Parents may need assistance in developing effective family communication systems, and can be an essential resource in program planning and implementation when mobilized. Special educators must acquire a broad range of skills in order to adapt to the unique perspective of the rural setting in which they are employed. Silver (1987) suggested that rural special education training programs include courses building consultation skills for conferencing and counseling parents and other family members. The rural special education teacher must often act as a liaison between the school and the family, seeking to communicate rather complicated and sophisticated concepts to individuals often unfamiliar with educational practices. Particularly in rural areas, the special educator may play a critical role in facilitating service delivery by ensuring the cooperation and participation of the family.

Training Preservice Teachers to Use Technology in Rural Schools

While most university programs offer some educational technology instruction, the introductory level course typically provided may not be sufficient for teachers to develop necessary expertise. According to Callister and Burbules (1990), the typical educational computer course "focuses on topics such as the history of computers, the technical aspects of hardware, taxonomies of educational software, programming, vocational implications, and the roles of the computer in society" (p. 3). Additionally, inservice training opportunities to acquire necessary competencies related to technological applications may be limited. Several problems with classroom use of computers were noted by teachers in a 1990 Appalachia Educational Laboratory survey. The most serious problems identified were: lack of planning for computer integration, lack of access to software information, lack of access to programs addressing problem-solving and other higher-level thinking skills, and lack of access to training in the operation and uses of computers (Hummel, Timonium, & Archer, 1993). Thus, teachers must often rely on their own initiative to acquire or upgrade technological skills.

In addition to uses of computers for instructional purposes, computers and other technologies may be used for compensatory purposes to overcome barriers to learning. According to Church and Glennen (1992), "Microcomputers with appropriate adaptations can empower disabled individuals, provide them with independence, and offer tools with which they can realize their full potential" (p. 123). PL 101-476 (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 1990) requires that schools provide assistive technology devices and services, when appropriate, for students with disabilities. As a result, a federal mandate exists to provide appropriate assistive technology services to eligible students. Teachers also need skills in assistive technology use for students with disabilities. Technological competencies for personnel who provide services to students with disabilities have been delineated in the literature (e.g., Blackhurst, 1988; Kinney & Blackhurst, 1987; Thibodaux, 1993); however, such lists may not adequately reflect emerging roles and functions following recent technological developments. Additionally, many rural school systems have been slow to utilize technology due to limited financial resources and lack of trained personnel. As noted, because specialists will rarely be available, rural special educators must be provided with appropriate training and experience to support the use of technology in the schools. Thus, the development of technological skills appears to be critical for special educators in rural areas.

Description of Project ReSET

Training needs of rural special educators in Louisiana have been examined, and Southeastern Louisiana University (SLU) has been involved in designing innovative teacher training programs (e.g., deFur, Evans, Carr, & Melville, 1990; Evans, Carr, & Melville, 1994). To ascertain rural Louisiana special educator training needs personnel from a federally funded rural training project at SLU surveyed 117 special educators across the state (Reiff & Anderson, 1989). Using a needs assessment format modeled on Helge's instrument (1983), this study provided an empirical basis for delineating factors critical to a successful rural special education training program. Louisiana special educators ranked skills in working with families as one of the five most important competencies. Rural parish directors of special education were also surveyed to determine critical training needs for special education teachers (Carr, 1990). Working with families was the highest rated competency and familiarity with adaptations and uses of technology for students with disabilities ranked seventh of 20 specific teacher competencies.

More recently, a survey was designed to investigate special education teacher and administrator perceptions regarding technology use for students with disabilities in Louisiana (Carr, Currie, & Torrey, 1995). Findings revealed positive attitudes and high importance ratings for specific technology competencies in the following categories: general computer knowledge, knowledge of assistive technology, assessment of assistive technology meeds, operation of assistive technology, development and implementation of IEPs, software knowledge and use, consultation, and advocacy. However, neither teachers nor administrators were confident in their knowledge or ability to execute technology competencies identified as important. These results are important for planning preservice training programs.

Project ReSET (Recruit, Retrain, Retain Special Education Teachers in Rural Areas), now in the second year of a four-year federally funded personnel preparation grant, is designed as a comprehensive training program with two major purposes: (1) to increase the number of highly qualified and certified personnel in special education working in rural areas within the state of Louisiana and (2) to implement a specialized training program to prepare teachers to meet the needs of rural children with disabilities. The target group of trainees for this project are individuals working in special education classrooms, who reside in rural areas. Trainees may have regular education certification and seek add-on special education certification or trainees may have a non-education undergraduate degree and demonstrate a commitment to work with students who have disabilities in rural areas. This special education preparation is at the graduate level, with participants certified in either mild/moderate or severe/profound impairments upon completion of the designated course of study.

The Project ReSET program consists of 21 semester hours required for certification, as well as two courses, a technology course, and a course focusing on working with families. (See Appendix) In order to meet the training needs of participants, a modified training program includes courses taken on-campus, off-campus, and via telecommunications. Individuals enrolled in the project are surveyed annually and upon completion of the program, and this evaluation data is used for ongoing monitoring and revision of the program.

Conclusion

It is essential that attention be focused on training special educators to be responsive to the unique needs of children with disabilities in rural communities. Training programs must be designed that address (a) the recruitment and retention of rural special educators and (b) improve the quality of training for rural special educators. These programs must reflect "state of the art" knowledge in special education. Teacher training must transcend certification requirements to develop competencies needed by effective special educators in rural areas. Project ReSET objectives are designed to ensure that graduates will gain the competencies needed to address the academic and social needs of their students in Louisiana. Graduates develop technological skills and skills in working with families, skills demonstrated to be essential to high quality programming for rural children with disabilities.

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THE EXCEPTIONAL FAMILY
CREDIT: 3 Hours

COURSE DESCRIPTION:

This course is designed to enhance the student's knowledge and understanding of family dynamics in American Society. Special emphasis is given to families with exceptional children whose presence demands frequent adaptive maneuvers and long-term adjustments. Issues related to working with families of children with disabilities in rural areas will be given special consideration.

COURSE TOPICS

Societal Changes 1950s to 1990s - Roles of Parents
Family System Theory: Characteristics, Interaction, Functions, Life Cycle
Family/Professional Communication
Family Support: Internal and External
Education of the Handicapped Act/Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
Family Participation in Developing the IEP/IFSP
Due Process
Exchanging Information with Families
Professional Ethics

COURSE READINGS

Turnbull, A.P., & Turnbull, H.R. (1990). Families, professionals, and exceptionality: A special partnership (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Bailey, D. B., & Simeonsson, R. J. (1988). Family assessment in early intervention. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Dunst, C. J., Trivette, C., & Deal, A. (1988). Enabling and empowering families: Principles and guidelines for practice. Cambridge, MA: Brookline.

Turnbull, H. R., & Turnbull, A. P. III (1985). Parents speak out: Then and now. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

COURSE REQUIREMENTS

Role plays, problem-solving activities, interviews, panels
Family services agency interview and reaction
Journal article review - Reaction/critique - Class presentation as researcher
Possible Options for project: comprehensive resource list, interview professionals, observation at various family service agencies, community inventory of services available, informational booklets for adolescents and/or family members regarding rights, annotated bibliography for siblings, annotated bibliography regarding referral and evaluation issues, informational packets regarding IEPs , IFSPs, transition.
* Listening to Families Project

COURSE MEDIA:

Video: They Don't Come With Manuals
Video: Special Dads, Special Kids
Video: Katie's IEP

TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION
CREDIT: 3 Hours

COURSE DESCRIPTION:

An examination of issues relative to uses of technology in special education. Includes discussion of integration of computer technology into school curriculum. Computer technology as tools for educators and as learning, living, vocational, and recreational tools for children with disabilities will be discussed.

COURSE TOPICS

Relevant Legislation
Uses of Computers: School, Home, Society
Computer Hardware
Software - Overview
  Design and Evaluation Issue
Integration of Technology into the Curriculum
  Word processing/written expression activities for students with disabilities
  Computer assisted instruction, issues for students with disabilities.
  Use of interactive videodiscs
  Multimedia
Assistive Technology
  Individuals with severe and physical disabilities
  Individuals with sensory impairments
Augmentative Communication - high tech alternatives
Uses of Telecommunication in the Schools
Technology Applications for Young Children
Models for Evaluation of Technology Implementation

COURSE READINGS

Lindsey, J. D. (1993). Computers and exceptional individuals. (2nd ed.). Austin: Pro-Ed.

Church, G., & Glennen, S. (1992). The handbook of assistive technology. San Diego, CA: Singular Publishing Group, Inc.

COURSE REQUIREMENTS:

A. Miniprojects:
  Demonstration of basic computer competencies
  Preview software catalogues, provide annotated listing
  Develop and demonstrate a lesson plan integrating technology into instruction for an individual student or small group
  Evaluate commercial software and provide critical reaction
  Complete the Special Net Tutorial , submit summary and reaction
  Use modifiable instructional software to develop a lesson/activity suitable for a student with mild/moderate disabilities. Demonstrate and submit reaction.
  Locate technology resources and interview agency personnel.
  Use teacher utility software to make teaching aides.

B. Major Project - presentation on a course topic

C. Design a comprehensive plan for use of technology in a special education classroom.

Dr. Sam Minner
Vernell Bizardi
Virginia Arthur
Jackie Chischille
Jesse Holiday
Rebecca Pyron
Amber Rezzonico
Brenda Yellowhair
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff Arizona
Kayenta Unified School District
Kayenta Arizona

COMPLETING UNIVERSITY DEGREES: BARRIERS FOR NATIVE AMERICANS

In this paper we will outline the results of three informal surveys. These results indicate possible barriers that Native Americans may face when trying to complete a University degree.

Minner and Prater (1992) interviewed 22 Native American students (15 women and 7 men) in person or by phone. These interviews occurred during the fall term 1990, the spring term 1991 and the fall term 1991. All of the students interviewed had left the Northern Arizona University campus prior to completing their degrees. Key questions asked were: Why did you leave the university and what factors could have promoted your retention?

The following is a content analysis of this survey:

Content Analysis

Item #1

16 people made similar statements about why they left. These statements have been categorized as Family Factors.

- "My parents never really wanted me to attend NAU. They were afraid that I would not come back home. They were afraid that I would get a degree and move to Phoenix or somewhere where I could get a good job."
- "My mother is very old and needs a lot of care. She has to go to the hospital every other week. There was no one to help her. That was hard for her and hard for me."
- "My father told me that it was wrong for me to not be around home. He said that it was selfish. I told him that I could get a good job if I got my degree, but he said that that was foolish talk. He wanted me home. I think he was lonely."

- "I think my family had something to do with my decision. I tried to get home as often as I could, but it was hard. When I was home, I couldn't study much. My parents and grandparents wanted me to help them and I didn't have time for studying. When I tried to do my studies I was interrupted and I was told to put my books and things away."

10 people made similar comments about finances. These comments were categorized as Financial Factors.

- "The tribe was supposed to give me a scholarship, but it never came through. I had very little money and my family couldn't help me out."
- I was very confused about the whole financial aid business. The people in that office were not very friendly or helpful. When I asked for help, they told me to fill out a bunch of forms which I really didn't understand. I needed help."
- ".....money was a big problem for me. One week, I barely had enough food to eat."
- "I couldn't survive on my loans. It might have been different if I had been there alone. But, my family was with me."

6 people talked about the attitudes they felt on campus. These comments were categorized as Campus Climate Factors.

- "I was very lonely. One of my classes broke into groups for a project. I was alone. I was the only Indian in the class. The teacher finally put me into a group, but I know that nobody really wanted me."
- "Indians are not very comfortable in class. We have nowhere to go. We don't know anyone. I was kind of afraid."
- "I was really left out of things. I missed my friends."

2 people talked about their preparation for college. These comments were categorized as Prep. Factors

- "I couldn't believe how hard things were. I studied and studied all the time, but I still did not do very well. I guess my high school work was no good. I was not very well prepared."
- "My high school work was good. I got all A's and B's. But, it was very hard at NAU and no one would help you."

Item #2

12 people made comments pertaining to additional support they wished they had received. These comments were categorized as Support Factors.

- "What I needed was a friend and helper. If someone would have helped me, I think I might have stayed on campus. No one helped me."
- "Only one person went out of his way to help me out. Dr. ___________ asked me if I needed help and talked with me about NAU. He was great, but was not always around. I needed more help with things."
- "It would be nice if we had a place where Indian students could meet and talk. Now, we all go our own ways and never get together. We need a place like this and someone to go to."

5 people talked specifically about their professors. These comments were categorized as Professor Factors.

- "My professors were not very good. They did not help us or even seemed to want us in their classes."
- "One of my professors talked to me about a paper in front of the whole class. The paper was not very good, I guess. But, he shouldn't have embarrassed me that way."

The second survey was conducted by Prater (1993). Participants in this survey were involved in the first year of the Rural Special Education Project (RSEP). The RSEP is a field-based preservice teacher training program located in Kayenta, Arizona. This program is a partnership between Northern Arizona University's (NAU) Center for Excellence in Education (CEE) and Kayenta Unified School District (KUSD).

Nine Native American Students were asked to respond to a written survey. Two of the items on the survey were : #1 what are the most difficult aspects of taking courses on a university campus and #2 list traits that you find most desirable in a university professor.

Item #1: What are the most difficult aspects of taking courses on a university campus?

6 Native Americans stated family obligations or being away from family as one aspect.

- "My immediate family ask of me to help sometimes. Majorly it's a big issue like grandparents' medical state. None of my aunts and uncles are comfortable to take them to the hospital."

3 Native Americans stated that time/management was a difficult aspect.

- "**TIME**. **TIME** is the most difficult for me...(I) don't have time with my family. A lot of test to administer while trying to do observation and work with school and meetings after school. But mostly it's **TIME**!!!"
- My time management is a problem. I need a system where I can follow it consistently and realistic."

4 Native Americans stated that tuition and finances were difficult aspects.

- "Obtaining tuition is usually the problem for full-time. Summer school is not difficult to attend since scholarship from the tribe is a full sum. Regular semester would be hard to get because of the scholarship and others."

3 Native Americans stated that distance was a difficult aspect.

- "...especially if you don't have a place to stay and having to drive 150 miles home every weekend."

1 Native American stated that living on campus was a difficult aspect.

1 Native American stated that finding his/her way around campus was a difficult aspect.

Item #2: List traits that you find most desirable in a university professor.

- communicate information in an understandable format/get to the point
- personality
- gives time/approachable/willing to help
- doesn't favor certain students
- flexible
- high expectations

The third informal survey was conducted by the authors of this paper during the spring, 1995 semester. The nine individuals completing this survey were Native Americans and participants in the RSEP. The surveys consisted of a sheet of paper with one question at the top of the page. That question was: In your opinion or experience what are some of the barriers for Native Americans in continuing higher education after high school?

The following is an analysis of the responses:

Six people made similar statements regarding traditions and culture. These statements have been categorized as Cultural Factors.

- "Family comes first and a lot of us want to expand our education but we tend to move closer to our family. Family is the number one priority. Many families need help raising the livestock and the elderly people need help."
- "In an average Navajo home setting, the family is close and any ceremonies held or any religious activity happening, the student may feel obligated to attend. If a student is unable to attend and the further away a student is from home, the harder it might be to concentrate on lessons, or the lack of transportation back to school or the length of the ceremony may have immediate effects on the student."
- "There are many feelings we have when we are in an unfamiliar place. That goes with being in a classroom with many strangers and perhaps being the only minority or one of the very few. Before one can answer questions or make a comment, we need to know a little about the other students or teacher. Some of us don't like to lose face by making wrong answers in front of strangers or anybody for that matter. So the best thing is to remain quiet and that would reflect on our course grade."

5 people made similar comments about financial support. These comments have been categorized as Financial Factors.

- "For many I believe have trouble in continuing higher education for financial reasons. Sure there are scholarships. But some scholarships have a limit and usually don't offer to students for various reasons."
- "Many tribes are funded with many dollars so that high school graduates who want to continue higher education can get the opportunity to. Yet there is a limited amount of money. Many miss out on the opportunity so they work in the fields, become sheepherders, or work part-time jobs to get by."

2 people cited lack of high school preparation as a factor.

- "In college there are numerous times a lengthy writing assignment is required. If a student is not well prepared during high school years, a paper is a threatening assignment. There may be lots of ideas generated in their minds, but it is difficult to write them down on paper in an orderly fashion. Another factor would be the difference of math taught in high school and a college level course. The college student is ill-prepared to do work at a higher level when they haven't had the chance during high school years."

1 person cited drugs and alcohol as factors.

- "The biggest barrier that I see is that of alcohol and marijuana. Many after high school fall into the cracks of using alcohol and drugs. They tend to lose focus on family, jobs, education, and most importantly themselves. They probably feel guilty and lose confidence in themselves."

1 person cited poor advising as a factor.

- "I had no guidelines when I was in college. I had depended on a few friends, but that wasn't enough. I would have been successful if I had a bilingual advisor."

1 person cited language as a factor.

- "I have hard (time) in college because I speak Navajo the most at home and to my friends around the campus."

In summary, we feel several barriers that Native Americans may encounter in completing a university degree have been identified. Universities trying to recruit and retain Native American students may benefit by attempting to remove these perceived barriers. If institutions of higher education are successful in addressing these issues hopefully it will be reflected in an increased graduation rate for Native Americans.

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Martha Johnson and Jeannie Manuelito
Southwest Communication Resources
EPICS (Education for Parents of Indian
Children with Special Needs)
P.O. Box 788
Bernalillo, NM 87004

NETWORKING WITH INDIAN COMMUNITIES

This information is provided by Education for Parents of Indian Children with Special Needs (EPICS) Project. EPICS is a national Parent Training and Information (PTI) project located in Bernalillo, New Mexico.

Many projects have had tremendous success providing information and training to parents of the mainstream culture, but now projects are interested in improving their ability to reach parents of minority populations and cultures. The following information offers guidelines for assisting non-Indian professional to effectively network with Indian communities. The strategies described are used at the EPICS project - the strategies work for us. It is hoped that the information provided will help individuals and organization respond more thoughtfully to the unique needs of Native American families and communities.

Many Indian communities are wary of new programs coming into their community to provide services. American Indians have significant differences between their culture, lifestyle and communication style as compared to those of dominant Anglo-American families with children who have disabilities. The goal of the module is to enable service providers to build positive relationships with American Indians families while preserving and respecting the integrity of each family's cultural and personal values. Indian parents want support, information and training from people who understand Indian culture and life ways. These parents want to learn how to be advocates for their children.

Getting acquainted with an Indian community to increase or improve the quality of parent involvement takes time. Remember, beginnings are important and the manner in which you approach a community should be appropriate. The amount of time spent depends on the number of people you already know, and community response to your effort.

EPICS uses the following information and approaches in assisting non-Indian professional to network with Indian communities:

- Culture is learned from birth through experiences the child has with the family, the community, and the environment in which he/she lives. This is a lifelong process, not a single event.

- Extended family may include, clan relationship, and friends. Outsiders should not try to determine relationships but should accept and respect. In some tribes, clan relationships are even more important than blood relationship.

- Roles and responsibilities with regard to the care of a child may belong to an extended family member. In Pueblo communities, the responsibility of rearing a child is a community responsibility -- elders, who may not be directly related to the child, may discipline the child.

- Traditional education is highly respected and may include the native language, oral tribal history, gender roles, cooperation, and maintaining the tradition and culture. In the public school system children use the English language, written history, non- gender roles, and competition. Many Native Americans are taught by example from parents, grandparents, or spiritual leaders, therefore, age and life experience mean more than years of formal education.

- Many Native Americans move back and forth from their home communities to the mainstream. Maintaining the balance of their culture and the western concept can become very stressful. Many Indian people are greatly involved during ceremonial activities which often times conflict with their work outside the community.

Getting started in networking with communities leaders:

Connect with someone in the community, i.e., tribal office, school staff, health care service providers, parent of other children with special needs. Identify parents or community members who can help you learn the customs and calendar of the community. Introducing yourself may require a phone call and introduction; a formal letter of introduction or a formal meeting.

After you have made your connections, you will be ready to make your first visit. For your initial visit to an Indian community, it is important to follow Indian protocol when meeting with representatives of the tribe. Tribal leaders should be addressed by their title i.e., Governor, Chairman, or President. Remember that these are the chosen leaders of a tribe or Indian Nation and they are due the respect that goes with that responsibility.

When meeting with tribal leaders or their representatives, be prepared to share information about your program. If your program has been in operation for a number of years, be ready to explain why this is the first time someone from your program has contacted the tribe.

Describe your program, the program's accomplishment, and what the program has to offer in their community. Explain the benefits that Indian parents will gain as a result of the services your program offers. Make sure that you clearly explain your goal. If you have to ask questions, explain what the information will be used for. This is the time to get feedback from the tribal leadership about the program that you are introducing.

It is important to begin learning about the community during your meeting. Learn what facilities are available for meeting or training space, which facilities are parents comfortable using, find out if there is a time of the week that is convenient for parents to meet, learn about other events on the "Indian Calendar", and find out if information needs to be presented in English, translated into the native language, or both.

Other important factors to consider: Find out who in the community can be contacted and contracted with to provide lunches, door prizes, etc. These and other incentives may encourage parents to attend an activity.

Learn the best way to circulate information within the community. Will the school or Head Start disseminate flyers? Does the tribe have a community newsletter, newspaper or radio program?

Learn about the community's environment and living conditions. Is the community rural or urban, affluent or in need, farming-oriented or otherwise? Living conditions have to be taken into consideration. Knowing a family's basic needs may be more important than knowing about the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Some areas may not have running water or electricity. Lack of transportation can be a serious barrier to parent attendance at workshops and training.

It is important to learn about the role of the extended family in decision making for children. Do not assume that the parents are the sole decision makers. In many cases, the extended family is involved in the overall care of the child. For this reason, it may be a good idea to make a special effort to invite extended family members to your activities.

Time is plentiful; time should be taken to build trust and make the right decision. Frequent contact is needed to establish relationships. Avoid showing impatience or presenting yourself in a hurriedly manner. It will take time and patience to establish yourself and your program in Indian communities.

You will need to continue to learn about the community and culture, but do not become intrusive. Realize that there are some things that Indian people cannot discuss with non-Indians. We recommend that you do not ask too many personal questions about cultural practices. Many Indian people have been raised with the tradition of "you will be told when you are supposed to know"

There have been successful relationships established with Indian communities with time, patience, and much respect for one another's tradition. Respect means becoming knowledgeable about Native American communities through an acceptable process. Respect also means accepting cultural patterns that differ from those of the dominant society.

These are some guidelines for developing long term relationships in Indian communities. Make the foundation for the relationship strong. The time table for conducting activities in the community should be theirs, NOT yours.

JoAnn Johnson, Coordinator
University Affiliated Program
College of Education, REPC/278
University of Nevada, Reno
Reno, NV 89557

Wendy Whipple, Director/Coordinator
Early Childhood Services
3987 S. McCarran Blvd.
Reno, NV 89502

REPLICATING SUCCESSFUL EARLY INTERVENTION IN RURAL AREAS

Model Program Description

As the State of Nevada works to develop comprehensive service delivery systems for children, ages birth through five years of age with developmental delays, cost-effective and beneficial service delivery models must be appropriately identified for all rural areas. Training replications of these models must then be made available to professionals and paraprofessionals who will be able to effectively use them. As a result, additional families and their children will benefit from local services, in both home and integrated settings, provided by qualified personnel.

The Home Activity Program for Parents and Youngsters (HAPPY) is a family-focused model developed specifically to meet the service delivery challenges of rural Nevada. This successful model was originally developed through a Handicapped Children's Early Education Program (HCEEP) Demonstration Grant providing services to children ages birth through five years and their families. Currently services are funded through state revenues and assist families and their children ages birth through two years.

The HAPPY service delivery model utilizes team-based programming, integrating the input of parents, interventionists and therapists; an assessment-based curriculum, which is computer assisted for programming purposes; and video technology, utilizing a consulting-based model, and involving the families as primary facilitators of their children's optimal development. Efficacy data from this program suggests that this service delivery model has resulted in high parent/family participation in their children's developmental programming and instruction (Perkins & Walter, 1987).

Despite the increasing success of the HAPPY service delivery model, a need for additional local community-based services exists to augment regional services for children ages birth through two. In addition, technical assistance and support is needed to enhance the continuum of service options available through local education agencies offering services to eligible children, ages three through five years of age.

The Home Activity Program for Parents and Youngsters (HAPPY) Rural Outreach Training Project is designed to assist in the replication of HAPPY home-based service delivery model components for rural Nevada providers. This program serves rural families and their young children, from birth through five years of age who have disabilities. The outreach training project is a collaborative effort funded by the Department of Education. Agencies involved in the project include: the Nevada Departments of Education and Human Resources (lead agencies for IDEA, Parts B and H), University of Nevada, Reno: University Affiliated Programs, College of Education, College of Human and Community Sciences, and School of Medicine, rural Nevada Inter-Tribal Council Head Starts, rural Nevada Head Starts, rural community child care providers, and rural local education agencies.

Module Development

The seven training modules developed for this outreach training replication were first identified as the fundamental components of the HAPPY rural early intervention model. These seven components were selected as target objectives and became the training modules.

Using a variety of resources, the replication training modules were developed as a linked system for the rural training sites, moving from identification and assessment, to conducting interventions, and working in teams, coordinating services, and involving families. Outlines of training module content evolved from a series of meetings in which the coordinators met with other professionals and identified critical issues and needs pertaining to potential rural training sites, programs, and participants. From these original outlines, training content in each of the seven modules was developed from a variety of sources which included the HAPPY early intervention services model, a review of published literature and training materials, professionals' experiences, and the needs assessments, initial training follow-up surveys, and informal interviews with training participants. The first source of information was the HAPPY early intervention model, currently used to meet the intervention needs for families in rural settings with children, ages birth through three who have disabilities. From the existing program model a majority of the service delivery issues were replicated.

The second source of information that was used in developing the training modules was the combined personal and professional experiences of the training coordinators and their associates. Each of the coordinators brought to this project several years experience participating in early intervention service delivery models, using a variety of team approaches, and teaching in both degree and non-degree training programs. Additional expertise was provided from other professionals based on their experiences in rural settings, their knowledge of adult training, and their own experiences. As modules were developed and outlined, the professionals' combined experiences and information assisted in shaping the emerging training content and presentation approaches.

The third source of information used in developing the training modules was through a search of published literature and training materials of best practices and adult teaching strategies in early intervention. The literature search used to develop the modules was extensive and incorporated examination of a variety of identified training approaches and content. Identified literature consisted of materials that covered information from a variety of areas. These materials included curriculum based assessment and intervention strategies, center and home based service delivery models, adult learning strategies, participant interaction activities, video training materials, teaming information, communication and collaboration skills and strategies, and rural service delivery issues.

The fourth source of information used in developing the training modules was in the form of participant feedback, obtained through three methods. First, as the modules and content were being developed, participants who indicated interest in obtaining the training were asked to complete needs assessment surveys. In these surveys, potential participants rated approximately 45 statements, related to the training modules, by interest and needs. The last page of the needs assessment surveys included an open-ended question asking participants to identify additional training needs and interests that could be included in the training. Second, as trainings took place, participants were asked to complete evaluations and follow-up surveys, describing additional training needs and interests. Third, as modules were developed, informal conversations took place with participants, obtaining feedback that would be helpful in providing further assistance to participants to meet needs unique to rural settings. As was necessary, the contents of the training modules were modified to reflect additional needs and interests of the rural participants and their settings.

These four sources of information all contributed to developing a cohesive outreach training program that provided a replication of the HAPPY model used in rural areas of Nevada. Sources from professionals' experiences, a comprehensive search of the literature, and feedback from the participants were useful in adapting the content and information to meet rural needs and interests individualized to specific areas, programs, age groups and participants.

Module Descriptions

The HAPPY Rural Outreach Training Project developed seven modules that replicate components of the HAPPY service delivery model and are representative of best practice. Rural service providers have the opportunity to receive professional development training focused in the following areas:

Module I: Home Visiting Strategies.
This module includes information on family dynamics, family guided care, and understanding grief responses. A discussion of cultural considerations includes a self assessment exercise, information of how religion and causation beliefs impact family systems, and the implications of these factors in program planning. A cultural assessment guide for service providers is also included. The second half of this module includes videotaped case studies for discussion, home visit guidelines, and role-playing activities. Family needs assessment methods are provided along with family coaching techniques, information on foster family/professional relationships and teaming strategies.

Module II: Parental Participation in Assessment of the Child and Program Development.
This module includes a definition of collaboration, and describes how values and priorities often impact families and professionals decision-making processes. Additional information is included to assist professionals in developing cultural competence. Case studies are included to obtain participant interactions regarding parent-professional relationships in the assessment process. In the second half of this module communication and collaboration activities are provided using hands-on activities and practice. Information is provided on the principals and practices of family guided services and include family involvement and participation, family identified concerns, priorities and resources, delivering sensitive information and encouraging parent participation.

Module III: Service Coordination.
This module provides a variety of materials describing service coordination principles and dimensions, roles of the family and professionals in service coordination, and implementing the process. Information regarding how service coordination impacts the IEP/IFSP process is also provided. The second half of this module provides information about community collaboration and the role of the service coordinator in planning and coordinating services.

Module IV: Consultative Therapy.
This module is designed to facilitate teaming in early intervention services. The first portion of this module focuses on defining team building and its processes, and identifying the stages of team development. A participant self-assessment that identifies team player styles is provided and several activities and practice oppurtunities are used to assist participants in using problem solving steps. Information that describes collaboration and collaborative goal

setting is included and several strategies and activities are provided that teach and allow practice in reaching group consensus. Two characteristics of consultative teams, role release and role transition processes are then discussed, demonstrated, and practiced through small group activities. Individualized training tapes for families and selected case studies are also used in this module to facilitate team planning.

Module V: Assessment.
An overview of assessment provides emphasis on screening, diagnostics and programmatic assessment and intervention methods. Discussions and activities identifying the purpose and type of each assessment are provided. An overview of the linked system provides information of the importance of linking developmental assessment and early intervention, including families, and insuring both formative and summative evaluation. An overview is provided of the Early Intervention Developmental Profile and Preschool Developmental Profile, the assessment and curriculum instrument used with the HAPPY computerized curriculum. Participants obtain hands-on practice using assessment through the use of videotapes. The last section of this module includes assessment strategies that include guidelines for observing and recording behaviors.

Module VI: Computer Based Curriculum.
This module provides instruction to participants in the use of the HAPPY software including its installation and all of its features. This module is designed as a hands-on computer experience useful in guiding participants through each component of the HAPPY software program, and includes creating a home activity program and utilizing computerized records. Instructions are provided in adapting the curriculum, and include task analysis, identifying missing components of behavior, creating and individualizing activities, and adding individualized program steps. The final component of this module is the application and use of the Home Activity Programs (HAPs), creating a link between school and home, fostering parent involvement and incorporating team collaboration across a variety of disciplines.

Module VII: Video Technology.
This module is designed for individuals who are not familiar with the use of VCR's for duplicating tapes and operating camcorders, and provides the mechanics for creating individualized training tapes. There is a focus in this module on implementing a video instruction and communication system for home program implementation, while incorporating the use of home activity programs.

Throughout several of the modules, training information may overlap. Individual training sites and programs identify the modules in which they are interested in obtaining training. Training content is then based on the needs assessment survey and the informal information obtained from the potential participants. Modules are designed to be flexible and meet specific individual program needs. Since it is unlikely that each program will receive training in all modules, it was important to include basic information (i.e., families, culture, team collaboration, etc.) germane to all aspects of the training throughout many of the modules. As trainings with programs progress, information included in each module can be emphasized or briefly covered as an overview.

Presentation of Training

Using guidelines based on the Learning Style Inventory, developed by Smith and Kolb (1985), a variety of presentation approaches were identified to balance adult learning approaches. In Smith and Kolb's model, four modes of adult learning were identified and organized into experiences for providing and obtaining new information. Through the utilization of the senses, visual, emotional, auditory, tactile, this inventory provides a schemata of a range of approaches that can be used in learning new information. The model included the following modes and approaches useful in learning: concrete experience, which emphasizes personal involvement in situations; reflective observation, which utilizes understanding of ideas and situations from different points of view; abstract conceptualization, which involves using logic and ideas rather than feelings; and active experimentation, which involves experimenting with changing situations.

Using the concrete experience mode, approaches used to involve the training participants include scenarios with roles played by the training participants, participants own experiences shared with the training group, and small group activities, discussions, and games that present problems in need of solutions. Using the reflective observation mode, approaches include case studies which provide specific experiences of others and the view points reflected by the various roles in each case, and instructor's role plays demonstrating communication skills and strategies, and examples of miscommunications between individuals. A variety of videotaped recordings of demonstrations, commentaries, participant surveys and self-assessments, and more traditional lectures provide additional approaches using reflective observation.

Using the abstract conceptualization mode, approaches include the use of group activities which involve planning and problem solving, journal writing, information obtained from applied research, and games and puzzle solving. Using the active experimentation mode, approaches include the use of instructor - participant interactions, participant practice sessions in using the information from the training, small group discussions and team activities requiring both process and product. By coordinating use of the adult learning modes and the identified content for the HAPPY replication training, the modules incorporate a balanced variety of teaching approaches utilizing a range of techniques.

Evaluation and Follow-up

Evaluation of the effectiveness of the HAPPY Rural Outreach Training focuses on the implementation of the HAPPY model, expansion of service options, training results and project effectiveness. This method includes continuous, formative evaluation that will facilitate immediate response to the need for program adaptation and an annual summative evaluation to assess the overall project.

A number of months after rural sites have received training, follow-up surveys are forwarded to participants to ascertain the training's impact in the following areas: ability to adopt components from the training, ability to serve more children, service delivery changes resulting from the training, incorporation of more family guided services, and implementation of the computerized curriculum. If programs have implemented the computerized curriculum, a survey is sent to those families currently receiving home activity programs. This survey ascertains if: activities were appropriate for the child and family, activities were enjoyable, activities helped with carryover from school to home, and in what ways activities helped promote their child's development.

Follow-up site visits are available for a two purposes. First, they are used to determine to what extent the model is being applied at the site. Second, they are usded to determine if there are discrepancies between recommended and actual site procedures, and identify the discrepancy. Identification of the discrepancy might include additional training, targeted technical assistance, or re-examination of the recommended HAPPY practice.

Each aspect of training efforts are evaluated to determine the effectiveness of presentations, effectiveness of materials, appropriateness of content, and the sensitivity to the ethnic and cultural groups within the community. Training evaluation surveys are completed after the presentation of each module. The data collected is used to modify the training procedures and to make training more relevant to each site.

Summary

The Home Activity Program for Parents and Youngsters (HAPPY) Rural Outreach Training Project incorporates a combination of replication, best practices, professional experiences, and participant feedback in order to provide rural based programs with the specific information and skills they need. Through the development of the seven training modules, several rural sites are able to select the modules that will be most appropriate to their staff training needs. As the programs begin to incorporate the information, follow-up information is obtained in order to continue to help these sites improve the services offered to families and their young children in rural areas of Nevada.

Sandy D. Devlin, Ed.D.
Box 9705
Department of Curriculum & Instruction
Mississippi State University
Mississippi State, MS 39762

Drug Use In Rural America - What You Can Do About It

Drug use among adolescents is an escalating concern. While the National Institute of Drug Abuse reports that 1 in every 11 adults in this country is an addict, numerous studies indicate that drug use among youths aged 12 to 17 is significant as well (Johnson, 1988; Thorne & DeBlassie, 1985). Individuals with disabilities have been identified as one of the nation's largest populations at risk for the development of drug use (Devlin & Elliott, 1992; Locke & Johnson, 1981). Over the last ten years, concerns over this problem have grown markedly among professionals in the fields of alcohol and drug abuse, special education, and rehabilitation. In this paper the state of current knowledge about the use of drugs and alcohol among individuals with disabilities will be examined, the results of a study focusing on the drug use patterns of disabled students in rural settings will be reported, and activities for the prevention of drug and alcohol abuse will be shared.

Drug Use Among Students With Disabilities

Johnson (1988) made reference to the fact that there are undocumented reports, particularly from urban school systems, of an increase in the number of special education referrals in which drug use is a factor involving either the referred student or others in the student's environment. The problems of these students can present a more complicated situation for the special education teacher. Situations involving drug use require special consideration in the planning phase due to the unique characteristics of these students. Johnson (1988) listed the most common characteristics of drug users as: experience of consideration stress; poor diets; psychosomatic symptoms; sleep disturbances; state–dependent learning, in which concepts and material learned while using chemicals is not available in the sober state; inability to handle social experiences; risk–taking behavior; inability to experience pleasure without a mood–altering substance; belief in the magical power of the substance; serious disturbances in moral and character development; depression and suicidal ideation along with guilt and shame; and low self–esteem and negative self–concepts (p. 29). Such factors as these can compound the physical, mental, or behavioral problems that the student already experiences as a result of his/her condition

Drug use among persons with physical and sensory impairments has been discussed in the literature. Issacs, Buckley, and Martin (1979) compared the alcohol use of hearing impaired individuals and non–hearing impaired subjects. They randomly selected 120 hearing impaired individuals from a list of 600 names of hearing impaired persons in the Rochester, New York area. Of the 120 selected, 39 agreed to participate. The participants completed an alcohol use survey which looked at such variables as quantity of alcohol consumption, the frequency of consumption, and variability of the respondent's alcohol use. These responses were categorized into one of five levels: heavy, moderate, light, infrequent, and abstainer. Surveys were administered individually by sign language interpreters. While there were no significant differences found between the hearing impaired and non–hearing impaired samples, there was a tendency for individuals who had attended schools specifically for the deaf to be among the individuals classified as heavy drinkers.

The drug use among hearing impaired students in a senior high school was investigated by Locke and Johnson (1981). Of the 46 eleventh and twelfth grade students surveyed, 26 reported current alcohol use, and 15 reported current drug use. Ten of the respondents who reported drug use used narcotics, nine used depressants, four had a history of stimulant use, and one had used LSD. Only one student had used PCP, 21 had used marijuana, and 13 had experimented with hashish or hash oil.

The Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (1985) in the State of Wisconsin mailed 8,000 surveys to

Wisconsin residents. Forty percent returned surveys. Of the respondents who indicated that they had spinal cord injuries or disease (597), 49% were classified as moderate to heavy drinkers. Forty-four percent of the group who identified themselves as orthopedically impaired were classified as moderate or heavy drinkers, and 40% of the blind or visually impaired respondents were in the moderate or heavy drinker group. The report indicated that this was a 50% higher use rate for alcohol than the general population.

Several studies have investigated drug use among persons experiencing mental retardation. Haung (1981) compared the drinking behavior of educable mentally retarded (EMR) students and nonretarded peers in the State of Alabama. Subjects were chosen from 12 junior and senior high schools located in three Alabama school systems. One hundred ninety EMR students were randomly selected from a total population of 472 students. One hundred eighty-seven nonretarded students within the same age range were randomly selected from high schools in the same school systems. Students were asked to respond to questions concerning their use of alcohol. The students were questioned in groups of 10. More nonretarded than retarded students identified themselves as occasional users (once a month), while EMR students indicated that they drank once a week or more. Retarded students stated that they felt more peer pressure to drink, with more EMR students responding that they drank "to be with the crowd," or because "their friends drink."

Some studies have looked specifically at drug use among individuals with emotional behavioral disorders. August, Stewart, and Holmes (1983) reported the results of a four year follow-up of hyperactive (HA) and hyperactive-unsocialized aggressive boys (H-USA). Thirty percent of the H-USA group were reported by their parents to have significant drug and alcohol problems as compared to zero percent of the HA boys.

In The International Journal of Addictions, Clements and Simpson (1978) reported the results of a survey administered to 47 adolescents diagnosed as behavior disordered or socially maladjusted who were residents in a state in-patient mental health center in the midwest. All 47 adolescents reported a history of illicit drug use which included glue sniffing. Peer pressure was indicated as motivation for initial drug use.

Devlin and Elliott (1992) reported in Behavioral Disorders a significant difference in the drug use patterns of students with behavioral disorders when contrasted to the drug use patterns of their non-disabled peers. Of the 43 students identified as behaviorally disordered, 51% fell into the high category of drug use - 30% of these students were reportedly polydrug users, approximately 5% were stimulant users, and 16% fell into the periodic drug use type. Students classified as polydrug users all reported significant use of at least one substance other than alcohol. Nine of the 43 behaviorally disordered students fell into the medium category of drug use while 12 reported light, negligible, or no drug use. In contrast, the non-disabled peer group reported 6 students falling into the high drug use category, all of whom reported the use of stimulants, inhalants, and light cocaine usage. Five of the peer group reported medium drug use, and 32 reported negligible or no use.

Drug Use Among Disabled Students In Rural Settings

Determining the nature and extent of drug use among disabled youth is hampered by the lack of research-based information across settings. The data reporting drug use of such students has primarily been the result of studies done in urban settings. This study served to collect data concerning the drug use of students identified as mentally retarded, learning disabled, and behaviorally disordered in twenty rural settings in three southeastern states. The drug use types of a controlled peer group was also surveyed. The Typology of Adolescent Drug Use (TADU) was administered to the students in their respective schools. All students were between 12 and 18 years of age. By classifying students according to their drug use type, the TADU allows the investigator to look at a student's total drug involvement rather than his/her use of single drugs. Student groups were tested by class. The TADU was read orally to each group of students. Time was allowed for students to mark each response before the next question was read. Students were assured that their answers were anonymous.

Each student completing the Typology of Adolescent Drug Use was classified into one of eight drug use types (See Table 1). These types include Polydrug Use, Stimulant Use, and Periodic Drug Use which were categorized as high drug use. The next three types, Marijuana and Alcohol Use, Heavy Alcohol Use, and Experimental Drug Use were categorized as moderate drug use. The last two types, Light Alcohol Use and No Use were categorized as low drug use. The results of this study confirm significant drug use among disabled students in rural settings (See Tables 1 and 2).

Discussion

The significant drug involvement of students with disabilities in rural settings is in line with previously reported data concerning drug use among students with disabilities in urban settings. Such students appear to be at particular risk due to the following factors: A) low self-esteem, B) poor resiliency skills, C) low academic achievement, and D) lack of accessibility to drug-prevention programs due to being educated in separate "special education" programs. There appears to be a need for effective, systematic drug prevention programs specifically designed to include students with disabilities.

Project Prevention - A Curriculum to Prevent Drug Use Among Students With Disabilities was developed through a United States Department of Education grant and is the result of three years of research focusing on what variables build resiliency among students with disabilities. Components of Project Prevention include: developing social competency, developing antonomy, building an astute ability to problem solve or make good decisions, and facilitating an awareness of the dangers of using drugs.

Social competence is an ever present problem for students with special needs and is an area that should be under development in the special education classroom. The ability to establish positive relationships with peers and adults through good communication skills, flexibility, empathy, and a sense of humor are traits of a socially competent child. Efforts should be made to develop the skills necessary to maintain positive relationships once they have been established. Helping students to learn what characteristics make a good friend, to appropriately communicate with others through good eye contact and positive body language, and how to give and receive compliments are all lessons that facilitate social acceptance and, in turn, social competence. Activities designed to develop social competence should include role-play situations and active "hand-on" activities in which students may utilize the skills under development.

Autonomy has been described as having a sense of one's own identity so that control can be exerted over one's environment (Berline & Davis, 1989). Closely related to autonomy is self-esteem. A good sense of self-esteem is when a person holds himself or herself in high regard. Good self-esteem is necessary for the confidence needed to assuredly manipulate one's own environment instead of allowing others to be in control of one's life. This is of particular importance for students with special needs who often are lacking in self-confidence due to repeated academic failure, social rejection, and learned helplessness. Activities to promote self-esteem should include lessons with the following focus: identification of positive personal attributes, acknowledgment and acceptance of differences in people, and the ability to verbalize self-value. Activities focusing on the development of self-esteem ideally involve small and large group discussion, bulletin boards, "all about me" notebooks constructed by students and activities that celebrate the diversity of students within a classroom or school.

Problem-solving or decision-making skills include the ability to think through a situation logically in order to attempt alternate solutions to problems. Good decision-making skills are important for both cognitive and social problems. The ability to make good decisions includes not just being able to come to a decision independently but to be able to seek assistance from others to make good choices.

All students need the opportunity to make decisions within the school environment. The need to have some control over one's life is a fundamental human need (Glasser, 1990), particularly for students enrolled in special education. While typical students may learn incidentally, many students with disabilities do not. Therefore, the steps to decision-making need to be introduced in the special education classroom and ample opportunity for practice provided.

After defining and discussing what the word "decision" means, teachers should introduce and discuss the following decision-making steps:

1. *Identify the Problem* – "What is the problem?"
2. *List Alternatives* – "What are my choices?"
3. *Think About Your Ideas* – "How am I or those around me influenced by each alternative?"
4. *Choose A Plan of Action* – What are the consequences of my choices?"

Once these steps have been introduced and discussed, students can form small groups to apply the steps to specific problem-solving situations. Encourage students to share their decisions and to accept the decisions of the other groups when there is a difference in opinion. The following scenarios are sample situations specifically geared for upper elementary students. Alternatively, teachers can write scenarios to fit the development levels of their students.

> *Your best friend invites you to spend Friday night with him or her. However, just this week your mom has mentioned how happy she is that your whole family will be together for a weekend of movies, eating, and fun. What do you do?*

The fourth component included in Project Prevention focuses on developing drug awareness. It is imperative that students be educated about the dangers of using drugs, both prescribed and illegal. Particularly important for students in special education, concrete descriptions and situations involving role-play helps information generalize to "real-world" settings. Beginning with the definition of a drug, activities and discussions should target the appropriate use of over-the-counter substances and proceed through the dangers of more illicit substances. The Institute for Substance Abuse Research (ISAR) annually publishes a *Drug Abuse* Digest which is a prevention guide that is available to teachers for a minimal fee. The *Digest* includes information on the various abused substances, along with color photographs, a glossary of slang terms, and a section on working with parents. The *Digest* is available through ISAR at P. O. Box 6837, Vero Beach, Florida 32961.

Fostering resiliency in students has become a challenge for special educators. The lack of packaged materials to specifically promote substance abuse among this population of students need not be a deterrent to special educators. A nurturing teacher can promote all of the traits of resiliency – social competence, good decision-making skills, autonomy, and drug awareness.

Table I

Drug Use Types According to Disability

Categories Typical	MR N = 287 n %	LD N = 146 n %	BD N = 87 n %	N = 103 n %
Polydrug	(6) 2.1	(1) 0.7	(3) 3.4	(9) 8.7
Stimulant Use	(5) 1.7	(5) 3.4	(2) 2.3	(2) 1.9
Periodic Drug Use	(11) 3.8	(9) 6.2	(6) 6.9	(4) 3.9
Marijuana and Alcohol Use	(9) 3.1	(3) 2.1	(6) 6.9	(6) 5.8
Heavy Alcohol Use	(13) 4.5	(5) 3.4	(4) 4.6	(11)10.7
Experimental	(29) 10.1	(14) 9.6	(8) 9.2	(9) 8.7
Light Alcohol Use	(22) 7.7	(13) 8.9	(5) 5.7	(21)20.3
Negligible or No Use	(96) 67.0	(96) 65.7	(53) 61.0	(41)40.0

Table II

Numbers of Students Falling Into The High, Medium, and Low Drug Use Categories

Categories Typical	MR N = 287 n %	LD N = 146 n %	BD N = 87 n %	N = 103 n %	
High					
Polydrug Stimulants Periodic	(22) 7.7	(15) 10.2	(11) 12.2	(15) 14.6	
	(22) 7.7		(41) 12.2		Total
Medium					
Marijuana and Alcohol Heavy Alcohol Experimental	(51) 17.8	(22) 15.0	(18) 20.7	(26) 25.2	
	(51) 17.8	(66)	19.6		Total
Low					
Light Alcohol	(214) 74.6		(229)	68.2	Total

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Diane Reese & Sharon Brunson
U. S. Department of Labor
Wage and Hour Division
Western Region, San Francisco, CA

APPLYING THE FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT WHEN PLACING STUDENTS INTO COMMUNITY-BASED VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

1. APPLICABLE FEDERAL AND STATE WAGE LAWS

For referral to your local Wage-Hour regional office (regional offices issue special minimum wage certificates for students with disabilities; they also can refer you to your local Wage & Hour district office which can provide information on child labor laws, payment of wages, and other federal labor laws):

Attn: Howard Ostmann, Chief
U.S. Department of Labor, E.S.A., Wage & Hour Division
Division of FLSA Operations, Branch of Special Employment
200 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Room S-3516
Washington, D.C. 20210
(202) 219-8727

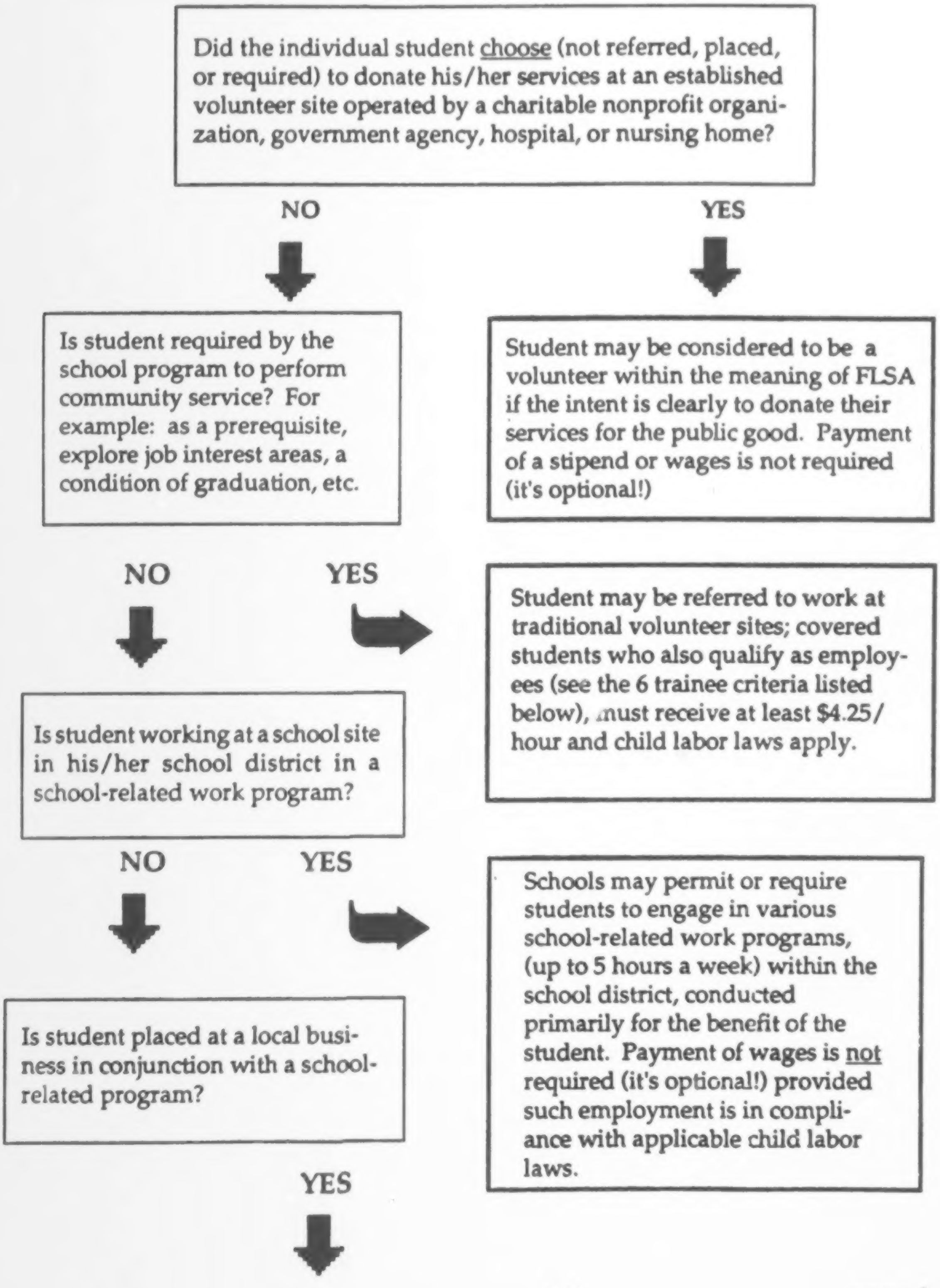
For requesting full-time student applications, regulations, & certificates:

Attn: Patricia Davidson, Section 14(c) Specialist
U. S. Department of Labor, E.S.A., Wage & Hour Division
525 Griffin Square, # 863
Dallas, TX 75202-5007
(214) 767-4039

2. LEGAL TRAINING OPTIONS FOR STUDENTS:

A. The FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT (coverage, $4.25/hour minimum wage, overtime, child labor, exemptions, hours worked, recordkeeping)
B. FLSA EMPLOYMENT RELATIONSHIP (trainees which also qualify as employees under FLSA, students placed/referred to "volunteer", students working for their school district on school grounds, USDOE-USDOL MOU, joint employment issues)
C. FLSA CHILD LABOR LAWS (nonfarm and farm work; 16 & 17 year olds and the 17 hazardous occupation orders; 14 and 15 year olds hour and time standards, prohibited jobs; work permit requirements; work experience and career exploration program-authorized states (WECEP)
D. EMPLOYMENT OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS AT $3.62/HOUR (application for certificate necessary, retail/service)
E. APPLICATION & RENEWAL OF SPECIAL MW CERTIFICATES (determining hourly worker wages for students with severe disabilities - a sample which meets minimal requirements of regulations, Part 525)
F. RECORDS TO BE KEPT

The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) & School- Related Work Programs: Are Students Required to be Paid? Do FLSA Child Labor Laws Apply?



Did the individual student choose (not referred, placed, or required) to donate his/her services at an established volunteer site operated by a charitable nonprofit organization, government agency, hospital, or nursing home?

Student may be considered to be a volunteer within the meaning of FLSA if the intent is clearly to donate their services for the public good. Payment of a stipend or wages is not required (it's optional!)

Is student required by the school program to perform community service? For example: as a prerequisite, explore job interest areas, a condition of graduation, etc.

Student may be referred to work at traditional volunteer sites; covered students who also qualify as employees (see the 6 trainee criteria listed below), must receive at least $4.25/ hour and child labor laws apply.

Is student working at a school site in his/her school district in a school-related work program?

Schools may permit or require students to engage in various school-related work programs, (up to 5 hours a week) within the school district, conducted primarily for the benefit of the student. Payment of wages is not required (it's optional!) provided such employment is in compliance with applicable child labor laws.

Is student placed at a local business in conjunction with a school-related program?

YES

With respect to the individual student's placement at a community business establishiment, **do all six of the following criteria apply?**

______YES ______NO 1. The training, even though it includes actual operation of the facilities of the employer, is similar to that which would be given in a vocational school. (A curriculum is followed, the students are under continued and direct supervision by either representatives of the school or by employees of the business).

______YES ______NO 2. The training is for the benefit of the trainees or students, such placements are not made to meet the labor needs of the business.

______YES ______NO 3. The trainees or students do not displace regular employees, vacant positions have not been filled, employees have not been relieved of assigned duties, and the students are not performing services that, although not ordinarily performed by employees, clearly are of benefit to the business.

______YES ______NO 4. The employer that provides the training derives no advantage from the activities of the trainees or students, and on occasion his or her operations may actually be impeded.

______YES ______NO 5. The trainees or students are not necessarily entitled to a job at the conclusion of the training period.

______YES ______NO 6. The employer and the trainees or students understand that the trainees or students are not entitled to wages for the time spent in training.

NO to any of the 6 criteria

The Department of Labor has always considered work performed as part of a community training/evaluation period to be compensable. This is made clear in the FLSA definition of *employ*—"to suffer or permit to work," which states that an employment relationship "does not depend upon the level of performance or whether the work is of some educational and/or therapeutic benefit." This position conforms to various court decisions regarding employment relationship under the FLSA. Unless the school or business holds a subminimum wage certificate issued by Wage-Hour, covered students must receive $4.25/hour and child labor laws apply. Either the business or the school system may compensate the student worker; both parties are jointly responsible for labor law compliance. Individuals eligible for employment under sub-minimum wage certificate include: students with disabilities participating in a school-related work program, student-learners in a vocational education program, & full-time students in retail or service establishments, agriculture, or institutions of higher education. For detailed information about Wage-Hour certification, contact Diane Reese at (602) 670-4822, in AZ, or Howard Ostmann at (202) 219-8727 in Washington, DC.

YES to all 6

The individual student is NOT an employee within the meaning of the FLSA. Stipends or wages are not required and child labor laws do not apply. Again, payment is optional.

FEDERAL LABOR LAWS FOR YOUNG WORKERS

Fourteen is the minimum age for most nonfarm work

14 and 15 year olds:

- can work up to 3 hours on a school day, Monday thru Friday and 18 hours during a school week.
- can work up to 8 hours a day on a nonschool day, or 40 hours in a nonschool week.
- cannot work during school hours.
- cannot work before 7:00 AM or after 7:00 PM, except from June 1 thru Labor Day when evening hours are extended to 9:00 PM.
- cannot work in any manufacturing, processing, mining, construction, warehouse operations, and many restrictions apply in cooking.
- cannot work in any of the 17 Hazardous Occupations listed below, for "16 and 17 year olds".

16 and 17 year olds:

- can work in any occupation except those declared hazardous by the Secretary of Labor. The 17 Hazardous Occupations for nonfarm work deal with the following:

1. Manufacturing or storing explosives
2. Driving a motor vehicle and being an outside helper
3. Coal mining
4. Logging and sawmilling
5. Power-driven wood working machines
6. Exposure to radioactive substances and to ionizing radiations
7. Power-driven hoisting apparatus
8. Power-driven metal forming, punching and shearing machines
9. Mining other than coal mining
10. Meat packing or processing (including power-driven meat slicing machines)
11. Power-driven bakery machines
12. Power-driven paper products machines
13. Manufacturing brick, tile, and related products
14. Power-driven circular saws, band saws, and guillotine shears
15. Wrecking, demolition, and ship-breaking operations
16. Roofing operations
17. Excavating operations

18 year olds:

- can work in any job for unlimited hours

Employers who violate the FLSA child labor law provisions are subject to a civil money penalty of up to $10,000 for each child labor violation that causes the death or serious injury of a minor.

State and Federal child labor laws sometimes differ. When both apply, the law with the more stringent standard must be observed.

FOR MORE INFORMATION, CONTACT:

The Wage and Hour office nearest you, they are listed in most phone books under: U.S. Government, Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration, Wage and Hour Division

This is one of a series of fact sheets highlighting U.S. Department of Labor programs and is intended to serve as a general description only and does not carry the forces of legal opinion.

U.S. Department of Labor
Program Highlights

Fact Sheet No. ESA 86 - 2

FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAWS IN FARM JOBS

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (FLSA), as amended, sets standards for child labor in agriculture. These standards differ from those for nonfarm jobs.

TO WHICH AGRICULTURAL WORKERS DOES THE FLSA APPLY?

The FLSA covers employees whose work involves production of agricultural goods which will leave the state directly or indirectly and become a part of interstate commerce.

WHAT ARE THE MINIMUM AGE STANDARDS FOR AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT?

Youths aged 16 and above may work in any farm job at any time.

Youths aged 14 and 15 may work outside school hours in jobs not declared hazardous by the Secretary of Labor.

Youths aged 12 and 13 may work in jobs not declared hazardous outside school hours either with written parental consent or on the same farm where their parents are employed.

Youths under 12 years of age may not work on farms employing workers covered by the minimum wage provisions of the FLSA. On all other farms, they may work in nonhazardous jobs outside school hours with written parental consent.

Local youths 10 and 11 may hand harvest short-season crops outside school hours for no more than 8 weeks between June 1 and October 15 if their employers have obtained special waivers from the Secretary of Labor.

Youths of any age may work at any time in any job on a farm owned or operated by their parents.

WHAT ARE THE HAZARDOUS OCCUPATIONS IN AGRICULTURE?

Minors under 16 may not work in the following occupations declared hazardous by the Secretary of Labor:

-- operating a tractor of over 20 PTO horsepower, or connecting or disconnecting an implement or any of its parts to or from such a tractor;

-- operating or working with a corn picker, cotton picker, grain combine, hay mower, forage harvester, hay baler, potato digger, mobile pea viner, feed grinder, crop dryer, forage blower, auger conveyor, unloading mechanism of a nongravity-type self-unloading wagon or trailer, power post-hole digger, power post driver, or nonwalking-type rotary tiller;

-- operating or working with a trender or earthmoving equipment, fork lift, potato combine, or power-driven circular, band, or chain saw;

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-- working in a yard, pen, or stall occupied by a bull, boar, or stud horse maintained for breeding purposes; a sow with suckling pigs; or a cow with a newborn calf (with umbilical cord present).

-- felling, bucking, skidding, loading, or unloading timber with a butt diameter of more than 6 inches;

-- working from a ladder or scaffold at a height of over 20 feet;

-- driving a bus, truck, or automobile to transport passengers, or riding on a tractor as a passenger or helper;

-- working inside: a fruit, forage, or grain storage designed to retain an oxygen-deficient or toxic atmosphere; an upright silo within 2 weeks after silage has been added or when a top unloading device is in operating position; a manure pit; or a horizontal silo while operating a tractor for packing purposes;

-- handling or applying toxic agricultural chemicals idenified by the words "danger," "poison," or "warning" or a skull and crossbones on the label;

-- handling or using explosives; and

-- transporting, transfering, or applying anhydrous ammonia.

The prohibition on employment in hazardous occupations does not apply to youths employed on farms owned or operated by their parents. In addition there are some exemptions from the prohibitions:

> -- 14 and 15-year-old student learners enrolled in vocational agriculture programs are exempt from items 1 through 6 when certain requirements are met; and
>
> -- minors aged 14 and 15 who hold certificates of completion of training under a 4-H or vocational agriculture training program may work outside school hours on equipment listed in items 1 and 2 for which they have been trained.

WHAT IF STATE CHILD LABOR STANDARDS DIFFER FROM FEDERAL STANDARDS?

Many states have laws setting standards for child labor in agriculture. When both state and federal child labor laws apply, the law setting the more stringent standard must be observed.

WHO ENFORCES THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAWS?

The Wage and Hour Division of the U.S. Labor Department's Employment Standards Administration enforces the laws. Employers may be fined up to $10,000 for each child labor violation.

WHERE CAN I GET MORE INFORMATION ABOUT THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAWS?

Get in touch with the nearest office of the Wage and Hour Division, listed in most telephone directories under U.S. Government, Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration.

• U.S. Government Printing Office: 1990-262-252/15417

Fact Sheet No ESA 87-19

EMPLOYMENT OF HANDICAPPED WORKERS IN SUPPORTED WORK MODELS UNDER THE FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

This fact sheet summarizes how the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) applies to the employment of handicapped workers in community-based evaluation or training programs, particularly placements in supported work models. The Wage and Hour Division, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, is responsible for enforcing the FLSA.

WHAT IS SUPPORTED WORK? -- The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services of the U.S. Department of Education funds pilot supported work programs in selected states. While these programs are still in an experimental phase, they are expected to become an alternative vocational rehabilitative tool. In supported work programs, job coaches work with severely disabled individuals who are placed in private-sector employment settings with nonhandicapped workers. The job coaches typically provide 6 to 12 months of extensive training and actually perform the job where necessary.

WHAT DOES THE FLSA REQUIRE? -- The FLSA requires employers to: pay all covered and nonexempt employees the minimum wage for all hours worked; pay all covered and nonexempt employees at least one and one-half times their regular rates of pay for all hours worked over 40 in the workweek (except that employees of state and local public agencies may receive compensatory time off instead of overtime pay under certain conditions); comply with child labor standards; and comply with recordkeeping requirements.

WHO IS AN EMPLOYEE? -- An employee is any individual employed by an employer, regardless of whether the individual is handicapped or whether his or her productivity is impaired or diminished by a handicap. Employees may not waive their rights under the FLSA.

ARE THERE SPECIAL PROVISIONS UNDER THE FLSA FOR HANDICAPPED WORKERS?

--Section 14 of the FLSA allows handicapped workers to be employed at wage rates below the statutory minimum but commensurate with handicapped workers' productivity. The commensurate wage is determined by comparing a handicapped worker's productivity with the productivity expected of nonhandicapped workers and applying that ratio to the wage rate paid such nonhandicapped workers in the vicinity for the type and quality of work being performed.

This is one of a series of fact sheets highlighting U.S. Department of Labor programs. It is intended as a general description only and does not carry the force of legal opinion.

In order to legally pay a wage rate below the statutory minimum to a covered, nonexempt employee, an employer must have an appropriate certificate from the Regional Office of the Wage and Hour Division having administrative jurisdiction over the area in which the handicapped worker is to be employed. Since certificates are not issued retroactively, the certificate must be obtained before employing a handicapped worker at less than the minimum wage. An employer who fails to obtain an appropriate certificate or to pay a commensurate wage rate will be held liable for any additional wages found due his or her employees.

WHO IS A HANDICAPPED WORKER FOR PURPOSES OF SECTION 14? -- Section 14 defines a handicapped worker as a person "whose earning or productive capacity is impaired by age, physical or mental deficiency, or injury." This definition includes blindness, mental illness, mental retardation, cerebral palsy, learning disabilities, alcoholism and drug addiction. The definition does NOT include individuals who are vocationally, socially, culturally or educationally handicapped; chronically unemployed; or who are welfare recipients, school dropouts, juvenile delinquents or parolees.

ARE TRAINESS AND STUDENTS CONSIDERED EMPLOYEES? -- All persons who may work without compensation for their own advantage on the premises of another are not necessarily employees. Whether trainees or students, including individuals participating in a supported work model, they would not be considered employees within the meaning of FLSA if:

- the training (even though it includes the operation of the facilities of the employer) is similar to that which would be given in a vocational school;
- the training is for the benefit of the trainees;
- regular employees are not displaced but closely observe the trainees;
- the employer derives no immediate advantage from the activities of the trainees;
- the trainees are not necessarily entitled to jobs after training; and
- both the employer and trainees understand that the trainees are not entitled to wages.

FOR MORE INFORMATION -- Further information can be obtained from local offices of the Wage and Hour Division, which are listed in most telephone directories under U.S. Government, Department of Labor.

Marsha K. Lakes
Nevada Department of Education

Lynne Ruegamer
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Andrea Trow
Nevada Department of Education

FRONTIER JUSTICE: ADAPTATIONS OF NEVADA'S IDEA COMPLAINT INVESTIGATION PROCESS FOR RURAL/REMOTE AREAS

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) has had a profound impact on the education of students with disabilities. An important part of this legislation, is the assurance that certain protections will be in place to provide a free and appropriate education (FAPE) to students with disabilities. One avenue of protection is the procedural safeguards that define due process procedures for parents and children. These areas of due process afford parents the opportunity to examine records, the right to independent evaluations, prior notice and parental consent for specific activities in the educational life of the child, content required in notices, the right to an impartial due process hearing, the right to an impartial hearing officer, certain hearing rights, the right to appeal hearing decisions, the right to an impartial review, the right to bring civil action, the right for the student to "stay put" in their current educational setting, the right to a surrogate parent if no parent can be identified or found, and the right to attorney fees under certain circumstances (Federal Regulation 34 CFR 300.500-515). These protections focus upon one specific child and that student's individual education program.

Another avenue of protection is state complaint procedures. This process focuses upon a violation of the requirements of Part B of the IDEA legislation. An organization or individual may file a signed written complaint under procedures that are detailed within Federal Regulation 34 CFR 300.660-300 661. While the complaint might focus on the educational program of one student's individual educational program, the intent is to determine if the educational agency has not followed the provisions of Part B either by lack of policy or procedures for that requirement. The focus of the complaint process is to determine if the public agency has violated a requirement of Part B of IDEA. The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services in the United States Department of Education, in a memorandum dated March 22, 1994, states that the process may also be utilized "to resolve disagreements with public agencies over any matter concerning the identification, evaluation, or educational placement of their child, or the provision of a free and appropriate public education (FAPE) to the child".

The vast size of the state, the remoteness of some locations, the alternative lifestyles found within the state and the pioneer spirit that remains within the state of Nevada makes investigating complaints a varied and interesting experience. The complaint investigation process spelled out in the Federal regulations are specific in the procedures to be followed. The Nevada Department of Education has designed complaint investigation procedures following those regulations; and, at the same time, integrated them into the Nevada frontier spirit.

A summary of Nevada's Complaint Investigation Process is as follows:
Step 1: Complaint filed with the Nevada Department of Education (NDOE).
Step 2: Complaint assigned to NDOE, Special Education Branch.
Step 3: NDOE-Special Education Branch Team Leader (TL) assigned from branch personnel.
Step 4: Team Leader (TL) selects an investigative team.
Step 5: TL communicates with complainant and public agency concerning complaint and schedules an on-site visit.
Step 6: Investigative team travels to specific location.
Step 7: Investigative team develops a report of findings.
Step 8: NDOE-Special Education Branch, via TL, submits report of findings to complainant and public agency.
Step 9: Corrective-Action Plans, with specific timelines are developed by public agency and filed with NDOE-Special Education Branch when violations are found.

Complaints are first filed with the Nevada Department of Education Superintendent of Public Instruction. These complaints can be initiated by anyone within a community. The complaint must state what regulations the public agency violated and provide facts to support this claim. The complaint investigation is then assigned to Special Education Branch staff. A team leader is assigned from this branch.

The Team Leader (TL) for the investigation makes preparations to carry out the first requirement, an independent on-site investigation. (The Federal regulations describe this requirement as "if necessary"). The team leader contacts the district administrative staff to notify the agency regarding the receipt of the alleged violation(s). This must occur in writing, usually accompanied by a phone call to the district to explain the process and make plans for the on-site visit. The complainant's identity is never divulged. For many rural districts, a complaint is the first occasion that a member of the community has utilized a formal process for resolution of a problem or concern. Frequently district staff and the complainant have no idea what a complaint is, or what the process entails. Preparations must be made for an educational component that will meet the needs of the complainants and district personnel.

The TL builds a team of department staff and others with experience and knowledge of the Federal and state regulations. University staff, parent advocates, and agency personnel may be involved to ensure objectivity. It is the Leaders responsibility to; coordinate travel plans (Nevada provides jet air service ONLY between Las Vegas and Reno, and two smaller communities can be reached by small prop-engine planes), schedule the on-site visit and arrange interviews, determine available resources (computers, Xerox, phones, etc.) and estimate time-lines. The Leader must also review resources that relate to the issues identified in the complaint and provide team members with appropriate materials to conduct the investigation. These resources usually include Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Regulations, Part B, CFR 300; the Nevada Administrative Code for Special Education Programs, Chapter 388; Individuals with Disabilities Education Law Review (IDELR), EDLAW Briefing Papers, case law, and district policies and procedures. These materials accompany the team to the on-site destination and are utilized extensively during the process.

Once the team arrives on-site, initial meetings are scheduled with district staff to explain and process and determine materials needed to conduct the review. This is largely an educational process for district staff and every attempt is made to alleviate concerns over the process. Arrangements are made to review all written records that apply to the issue and to interview appropriate district staff.

Interviews with the complainant are scheduled at locations off campus and in the community. The complainant could be an individual or an organization. The educational component of the process is the initial order or business.

The review of written records and interviews form the basis of data from which conclusions are drawn to make an independent determination on the public agency's alleged violation of Part B. The conclusions are not reached on-site. Additional discussion occurs between team members once the on-site investigation has concluded and input from each team member considered.

The team must then develop and issue a written decision to the complainant that addresses each allegation in the complaint. If there are areas where the regulations have been violated, an order coming forth from the report might include the development of policy and procedures to ensure compliance with the regulation in the future. The order can also address issues of staff training when necessary. When violations occur the district must develop a corrective action plan and indicate time-lines for completion. There are numerous times when no violation of regulations are found. The findings are then discussed with both the public agency and complainant to provide clarification and closure.

A review of the complaints received over the past four years reveals some interesting trends. The following chart indicates the growth in Nevada:

		PUBLIC AGENCIES	
YEAR	# OF COMPLAINTS	RURAL	URBAN
91-92	2	1	
92-93	4	2	
93-94	13	5	
Fall - 94	10	5	5

The number of complaints filed is approximately doubling each year. Specific reasons remain undetermined but are most likely associated with state population growth, active parent advocacy and/or success of the complaint resolution process.

The issues represented in the complaint investigations are as diverse as the individual needs of students with disabilities. Areas of complaint include: the IEP (annual review, interm IEP's, etc.) failure to provide related services, transportation, suspension-expulsion, failure to provide a continuum of services, "appropriate" programming, etc. While numerous other issues have been addressed no specific trend has been noted.

Numerous adaptations to Nevada's complaint investigative process must be made because of the rural and remote nature of the state. Nevada is a large, diverse state totaling 110,561 square miles. Traveling by interstate and state highways, the north to south boundaries are approximately (Laughlin turnoff to Jackpot) 569 miles apart and west to east (Lake Tahoe to West Wendover) is 414 miles. Eighty five percent of Nevada's land is owned by the Federal government. The 1990 population was 1,201,833 in 17 counties. 17.4% of the population lives in rural areas, leaving 82.6 % living in the two metropolitan areas of Las Vegas and Reno. Population density is 10.95 persons per square mile which illustrates the uniqueness of the state. The state is experiencing astronomical population growth. From 1980 to 1990, the state population increased by 50.1 percent. The population is anticipated to grow to 2,145,000 within the next twenty-five years.

School districts in the state of Nevada are defined by counties. There are currently 17 county school districts within the state. The total student population is 250,747. They range in student population from approximately 130 students (Esmeralda) to 155,000 students (Clark County). There are 403 schools within the state. Sixty percent of the Nevada school enrollment is in Clark County. Nye County is the largest county in square miles while Carson City (the state capitol) is the smallest.

Gaming and tourism are two of the largest sources of revenue. Additionally, mining, farming and cattle ranches can be found alive and well in the rural areas. Fifteen of Nevada's 17 counties have legalized prostitution. The state is littered with ghost mining towns. And many of the towns boast that they are the burial site of many famous Western characters.

Nevada's complaint investigative process is fairly unique in that it occurs on site. Travel becomes a major problem since airlines only provide service between Reno and Las Vegas, with two smaller communities served by commuter airlines. Distance between towns could be from 50 to 200+ miles with no services in between. In remote areas, four wheel drive vehicles are required, along with the skill to navigate through ice and snow or 120° temperatures. Team members must be adept at changing tires, putting on chains, checking radiators and locating help!

Each specific community has it's own personality and language. Ranching, mining, and gaming reflect the rural culture. It is not uncommon to conduct interviews in the town meeting place (1800's bar replete with "cribs" out back) and sites vary from colorful saloons, church basements, front seat of cars, to libraries. While the locations lend greatly to the enjoyment of the investigation it is also important to recognize that these locations may not have Xerox machines, FAXes, computers, and luxurious accommodations. The team must be flexible and able to deal with extremes in climate, accommodations, resources and people. Business attire, while appropriate in urban locations, are definitely out of place on the back highways. Dressing for survival assumes importance. Schedules and time-lines change as rapidly as the weather.

The Nevada Department of Education, Special Education Branch, along with team members, has developed the "Frontier Justice Survival Kit". This kit is replete with maps, pertinent vocabulary (mining, ranching gaming), "How-to-do/repair" kits, survival equipment, common-sense guidelines, and historical/humorous information about rural/remote sites that help the team adjust to local culture...and survive travel throughout the state. The "Kit" has become an important asset to Nevada's Complaint Investigation process and ensures the individuals involved as team members will be prepared to meet the challenges in the rural and remote areas of the state.

Dr. Greg Prater
Bryan Kee
Raleigh Holmes
Darrell Smiley
Lorraine Skaates
Suzanne Kull
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona

A FIELD BASED RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM: A DESCRIPTION

The preparation, recruitment, and retention of teachers for rural areas and Native American Reservations has long been a serious problem (Alliance 2000 Project, 1993).

The National Center for Education Statistics found in 1991 "only 9.5% of bachelor's degrees in education were earned in special education." Though the need for special educators is great throughout the country, there is an even greater need within rural areas (NASDSE, 1994).

Rural areas share a common problem with recruitment and retention of teachers. In a recent Comprehensive System of Personnel Development (CSPD) study conducted by the Arizona Department of Education, special education directors were asked to note any general concerns they had about recruitment and retention of special education personnel. Seventy-three percent of rural administrators felt that the recruitment and retention of special education teachers was a "significant problem" (CSPD,1994). Due to the lack of experience of living within rural communities, especially among Indian Reservations, many schools find it difficult to recruit and retain qualified special educators. Within some rural areas, there is a turnover rate of 100% for non-native teachers. Many of the problems stem from culture shock, language barriers, homesickness, and from a complete change from previous lifestyle. As a result, minimally qualified teachers are employed to work in special education classrooms (CSPD, 1994).

Because of such needs, Northern Arizona University (NAU) developed the Rural Special Education Project (RSEP). The program was funded by the Department of Education during the fall of 1992. The funding has/will train up to a total of 60 pre-service special education teachers. Approximately one half of the participants are Navajo and reside in Kayenta. This project enables them to work, remain with their families, and live within their communities while obtaining special education certification.

The grant provides for tuition, books, conferences, and the salary for the project manager.. Kayenta Unified School District (KUSD) provides housing for "traditional" NAU students (students that typically lived on campus) as well as the project manager. The NAU Center for Excellence in Education (CEE) provides travel expenses for instructors who provide guest lectures in Kayenta.

The project manager is responsible for providing the majority of the university instruction. Special education professors from the NAU campus deliver guest lectures or presentations to the RSEP students on a regular basis. At the end of the program (one academic year) students will have completed all of the necessary classes to obtain Arizona certification in the areas of learning disabilities (LD), emotional disorders (ED), and mental retardation (MR).

Each semester the NAU students spend 20 or more hours per week within a KUSD inclusion classroom. Students have the opportunity to do both formal and informal assessment in their classroom placement. Students are a part of parent/teacher conferences and IEP meetings. These activities are coordinated/supervised by the project manager or cooperating teachers and are related to university classes the RSEP participants are taking during the afternoons and evenings.

Students in the RSEP program also learn about each other culturally. Anglo, Navajo, and Hopi cultures are discussed within the university classes. In addition to these discussions RSEP students also experience the culture first hand.

Some of the cultural activities that the Anglo NAU students have experienced from the culture are; Navajo weddings, ceremonies, the Navajo Nation Fair, and the traditional food of the culture.

Together the students are experiencing the surrounding beauty of the Navajo Reservation. Places such as Canyon de Chelly, Window Rock, Chinle, Wheatfield and even the famous Western movie site of Monument Valley. Aside from that there are beautiful areas throughout Kayenta for hiking, fishing, and sightseeing. The group has also visited the Havasupai Village within the Grand Canyon and made a cultural exchange.

Participants from the previous two years are involved in various aspects of their education and teaching careers. Most of the Navajo students are still employed within the KUSD. They are completing their course work through classes taught in Kayenta or by taking a full load of classes (12 credit hours) during the summer school sessions on campus. This is challenging for many, as almost all of the Navajo students are married and have children. Completing their education takes much longer than the campus students who return to NAU after the project is complete. One major reason for this is because of family responsibilities and the great distance (150 miles) from Kayenta to Flagstaff.

The traditional students return to the NAU campus after the two semesters in the project to complete their degrees. Many are ready to student teach after one or two additional semesters on campus. Former campus graduates of RSEP have expressed that living on the Navajo reservation and being in the classrooms 20 hours a week has been beneficial to them when making decisions about their professional careers after graduation.

A total of eight students who participated in RSEP have graduated from NAU. Six of these students are teaching in rural and reservation settings. Of the seven students currently student teaching, four are on reservations and two are in Europe in Department of Defense Schools. There are 18 students enrolled in RSEP for the 94-95 school year.

Former students have been fortunate to gain experience presenting at one international, one national, one state, and many local conferences. This year students will be presenting at the state Council for Exceptional Children and the ACRES conferences. They have also attended the Coalition of Indian Education conference in Albuquerque, New Mexico and will present at NAU Honors Week.

The Rural Special Education Project has been nominated for distinguished awards, including the Coalition for Exemplary Rural Special Education Programs. The RSEP was chosen as one of the top three most innovative teacher education programs for 1994 by the Association of Teacher Educators. Northern Arizona University awarded RSEP the outstanding program of the year, and the Principle Investigator of the project received an award from the Center for Excellence in Education at NAU.

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Kay S. Bull, Ph.D and Jane M. Rupard
Department of Applied Behavioral Studies in Education
Oklahoma State University Stillwater, OK

RESOURCING VISUALLY IMPAIRED CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN RURAL SETTINGS

Community-based services for children who are blind or visually impaired, because they are low incidence "... are virtually absent in more sparse settled areas..." (Kirchner & Aiello, 1985, p.232). This forces the discussion of accessing community resources to be one of location and creation in the "community" in a broader sense.

Prefatory to accessing resources is understanding the meaning of "community." In the rural the closest town may be miles away, and the town may be nothing more than an intersection in the highway. Therefore, the local community will be defined to include the nearest town. There are also resources that can be developed or accessed at the county seat with concerted effort. You will often have to be aggressive and persistent to get what you need to serve your visually impaired (VI) students. For very young children most resources are available through health and human services organizations. As children grow older, age 3+, there will be greater involvement with the educational establishment. Most of the educational programs which children with special needs would require are federally mandated, and school districts must provide services.

Accessing Resources - Regular Education Teachers

Other than minimum services, the child with a visual impairment should have access to all of the school related services which are available to other students. In a rural community it is probable that the regular education teacher will assist in providing educational services to all students, including those with visual impairments. Due to the low incidence of visual impairment, as compared to other handicapping conditions, the chances of a community hiring its own teacher of the visually impaired is unlikely. In fact, throughout the nation, there is a shortage of teachers qualified to teach children with visual impairments (Parsons, 1986). With these statements in mind, it is conceivable that one of the roles of the regular education teacher will be to seek out resources for a student with a visual impairment.

For a regular education teacher the very first place that she/he should go for resource assistance for an identified child with VI would be the special education department within the school district, or special education cooperative, that is responsible for the child's education. School districts are required to provide necessary services to all students with disabilities. These services may include, depending on the severity of the student's disability, an itinerant teacher certified in the area of visual impairment, an orientation and mobility specialist, an occupational therapist, and/or physical therapist. To determine which, if any, of these services are necessary the regular education teacher will need to contact the appropriate diagnostic personnel utilized in the district. Which particular resource provides this service will depend on the individual state. Contacting the state residential school for children with visual impairments will also provide the teacher with many answers, and suggested agencies to call. The regular education teacher may have to help identify resources that will be written into the IEP if the district does not provide specialist assistance.

To tap resources in the community that could assist the regular education teacher in providing services to children with visual disabilities, the teacher should try to tap the community resources in Table 1 which indicates sources and types of services. Read the type of service key at the bottom of the table to determine the types of services which may be provided.

Being a member of the community will give any teacher an "edge" to getting services, funding, and/or equipment for students. Regular education teachers need to realize the value of people when teaching a child with a visual impairment. Volunteer workers can become readers for taping material, or can read directly to the student if information is not available in large-type or print. Volunteers can also provide a "sighted-guide" for a student with severe enough vision loss to necessitate assistance in travel for field trips and community- based activities. Volunteers are readily accessible through churches, and other social agencies within a community. Older citizens and retirees are valuable resources for a teacher to utilize.

Accessing Resources - Special Education Teacher

Although the special education teacher would be more familiar with special needs populations, it is probable that his/her experience with students having visual impairments is limited due to the low incidence of children with visual impairments. Most college courses in special education do not train specifically in the area of visual impairment (Knowlton, 1987). In fact, there are only 30 college or university level programs across the country with specific degree programs in blindness and visual impairment (College Board Press, 1993).

Still and all, it would be the special education teacher in most schools that would deal with specific issues arising in services for a student with a visual impairment. The special education teacher, too, should utilize community resources, specifically its people, to assist in providing services to the child. They may also be assisted by organizations such as those listed in Table 2.

The special education teacher should request that the district purchase subscriptions to journals dealing with visual impairments, as an on-going resource for information and teaching strategies. These journals include: The Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness and R.E.: View. Even if an itinerant teacher of the visually impaired is contracted to help in educating the student, it is the district's special educator who will provide most of the teaching. The reason for this is simple, the itinerant teacher travels a large area to serve students. Most of these areas are rural and for logistical reasons the teachers often cannot get to a student more than once, or maybe twice a week, for an hour or so each time. Knowing the special educator will be the primary teacher for the student is reason enough for the district to provide time and travel for this teacher to attend training sessions in many aspects of teaching the student with visual impairments. Some of these areas may include: orientation and mobility, braille computer systems, adapting the environment, and adapting the curriculum. A good resource for this training would be the state school for the blind or any of the resources listed in Table 2. Once the special educator has been trained, she/he can share his/her new knowledge with other teachers in the district.

TABLE 1

Community/Local Resources

Existing*

- Coops, Grange (E)
- Recreational opportunities (R)
- Chamber of Commerce (F, E)
- Tourist Bureau (R, E)
- Coummunity service groups (F,E)
- Telephone Book (E, F, R, S)
- Newspaper (E, F, R, S)
- Area Shopper (Shop & Swap) (E, F, R, S)
- Church groups (F, R, S)
- Community Recreation Programs (R, S)
- Activity groups (Scouts, FFA, Etc.) (R, S)
- Public Schools (F S.)
- Job Training Partnership Act (E)
- Lodges/societies (VFW, Lion, etc.) (E, R, S)

Potential to be Created

- Counselors in the community for families and siblings (F, S)
- Career counseling/Career Education (E)
- Local Funding Sources (F, E, R, S, M,)
- Volunteer programs for:
  - Mobility training (E,S)
  - Transportation (E, S)
- Business to provide supported employment, transition and life-skills (E)
- Self-help groups (S, R, F)

County/Regional Resources

- Social Service Agencies (M)
- Public Health & Professional Medical Agencies(M)
- Universities (F)
- BOCES (or equivalent intermediate units) (E)
- Children's Hospital (M)
- United Way county office (M, F, R, E),
- Regional Hospital (M)
- Social Services Dept. (M, F)
- Guidance Center (M, F)
- Legislators (E, R, M)
- Ministerial Alliance (F)
- Residential Programs (F, S)

- Apprenticeship program (E)
- Regional job accommodation network (E)
- Regional job development personnel (E)
- Pool of mentors/Role models (R, S)
- Regional peer telephone bridges (S)
- Regional parent network (F)

Types of Services Potentially Available

E=Employment
F=Familial support and advocacy
R=Recreation
S=Social/Interpersonal development
M=Medical, financial and other social servi

*Known to exist in some settings

Table 2

EDUCATION

Exceptional Teaching Aids
20102 Woodbine Ave.
Castro Valley, CA 94546
1-510-582-4859

American Printing House for the Blind
P.O. Box 6085
Louisville, KY 40206-0085
1-502-895-2405
1-800-223-1839

Communication Aids for Children Crestwood Company
6625 N. Sidney Place
Milwaukee, WI 53209
1-414-352-5678

Recording For the Blind
20 Roszel Road
Princeton, NJ 08540
1-609-452-0606

National Braille Press
88 St. Stephen Street
Boston, MA 02115
1-617-266-6160

Seedlings... Braille Books for Children
P.O. Box 2395
Livonia, MI 48151-0395
1-800-777-8552

National Federation of the Blind
1800 Johnson Street
Baltimore, MD 21230
1-410-659-9314

Linda Burkhart
8503 Rhode Island Ave.
College Park, MD 20740
(designs for teacher made adaptive
switches)

National Library Services
for the Blind and Physically Handicapped
1291 Taylor Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20542
1-202-707-5100

Taping for the Blind
3935 Essex Lane
Houston, TX 77027
1-713-622-2767

Association for Education and Rehabilitation
for the Blind and Visually Impaired
206 N. Washington Street,
Suite 320
Alexandria, VA 22314
1-703-548-1884

Part of the job duties of the special educator is to provide transitional training for the older student. This training could involve daily living skills, such as cooking, cleaning, clothing care, and banking. Community businesses, such as laundromats, small restaurants, apartments, motels, etc. can all be accessed to provide equipment and materials for functional living skills training in "real" settings.

As the student with a visual impairment reaches employment age the responsibility of job training and job placement will most likely become the duty of the special educator. Transition services (to assist in moving from school into the job market) should be available in all schools, and are at least hypothetically available in 30+% of rural schools as well (Beard, Montgomery, & Bull 1991). In many rural communities the co-op is the largest employer and therefore a potential source of job training, transitional placement or permanent employment for students, disabled and non-disabled. The Chamber of Commerce, with their contacts in the business world, can also be a valuable resource for job training or employment. The state Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) office can often provide funds for job training. Local businesses can receive special tax credits for hiring students with disabilities.

Community/Local Resources

Existing/potential resources: Community/local resources are listed in Table 1. Not all may be available in a particular rural community, but they can be developed by teachers who are willing to network and to work on their development. Almost all developed community resources which focus on the child who is blind or visually impaired were begun by a single parent or teacher who had a need. This person reached counselors in the community who deal with the needs of the families and siblings of persons who are blind or visually impaired. Counselors need training in this area and, usually only a few can deal adequately with the needs of relatives of the handicapped in general and the blind or visually impaired in particular.

At the same time that support relationships are being developed, other kinds of services can be developed. One successful strategy is volunteer programs. Commitment with the development of volunteer programs comes the development of funding resources to support the programs.

At the local level there is a greater opportunity and need for transitional placement if the student is to remain in the community. To stay in the community the student must obtain appropriate career counseling/career education. Higher education, vocational technical education, and career education are most likely to be supported and financed through Vocational Rehabilitation, Visual Services or Vocational Technical Programs. Employment training can be supported by JTPA or similar mechanisms in which members of local businesses provide semi-supported employment and apprenticeship programs. Many rural public schools can develop programs toward that goal. Concomitant to this are the development of independent living and life skills programs. Sometimes these programs are available through a high school or vocational technical school, but usually, they are provided by volunteer groups, sometimes affiliated with a sheltered employment setting. This particularly is true if the students are multihandicapped.

County Level Resources

Possible county level resources are listed in Table 1. Existing resources at the county level should be pursued in the same manner as those available at the local level. If the community is both rural and remote you will probably conduct most of the contact in writing.

Existing Resources: County level resources are more or less available at the county seat. In most states, offices of state agencies, Human Services, Health Departments, Guidance Centers, and Vocational Rehabilitation are located in each county; in highly populated areas, with resident representatives available five days a week. In sparsely populated areas, traveling nurses, counselors, or representatives may be available weekly, bimonthly, or by request and appointment. The population of the county seat is not as crucial to the availability of services as the proportion (or raw numbers) of county residents below the poverty line. Poverty tends to draw higher levels of service on the basis that it is the volume of potential clients which leads to staffing accommodations.

At a large (population 20,000+) county seat, you could expect to find hospitals and human/family services. Hospitals, which can provide services for children, may include a public health and professional medical agency. Sometimes there is access to optical aids, equipment and other resources which may be helpful to special needs populations. If the hospital is a regional hospital it may have a social service department. Be sure to explore hospital services carefully. A good source of information outside of the hospital chain is the head "Candy Striper," hospital social worker, or chaplain. These persons coordinate all hospital volunteers and usually know everything that is available and who to see to access it. The human/family services agency office is where information about funding resources for aids and equipment can be acquired. In the same line, there be a county office of the United Way/Community Chest which may be a source of funds for projects of equipment or a Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES). The BOCES will also have contact with a regional or state resource center which could provide optical aids, braille books, tapes and other resources. Finally, there might even be a university or a branch of a college which could provide both parent and teacher instruction as well as being a potential educational outlet for specific students. Most states have funded organizations for information and referral services for special needs children; local health or human services agencies can usually provide you with resource names and telephone numbers.

Potential Resources: At the county level we have an opportunity to create a variety of networks which would be beneficial to both students and caregivers. These might include a job accommodation network which would maintain a list of jobs that could be filled by students with varying degrees of visual impairments. Also given would be where and how training for these jobs could be obtained. If the client pool is large, a resource agency (e.g. social services) may even be talked into employing job development personnel who would service clients throughout the county. It is possible also to develop a telephone peer support group through which individuals with blindness or visual impairment of all ages can talk and discuss solutions for problems which are unique to their condition. Peer networks of students using phone bridges to connect more than two teens at the same time and pools of mentors or role models, can sometimes be developed which can serve to guide and support students in both academic and non-academic endeavors.

Communicating With the Community: There are a variety of ways in which you can communicate resource needs to the community at the local or county seat level. These include both personal and mass appeals. Personal appeals are usually made through talks to clubs or to groups of civic leaders, e.g., at Chamber of Commerce meetings. Many times what is needed is consciousness or awareness raising. Just getting your needs into the public view may be beneficial. Mass communication, such as on a local cable franchise, press releases to local/regional papers, or advertisements at a booth at the county fair will normally be seen by just about everyone in a rural county and can fill this need.

Developing Volunteer Programs

Programs that provide services are typically affiliated, at least loosely, with the public schools. Fund raising volunteer programs may be set up to work for a specific individual (Flanagan, 1981; MacBride, 1980). School volunteer programs are the most widely used, but volunteer programs do not have to be in the schools. Colleges or university with teacher training programs are a good resource for volunteers and advocates for children with special needs. Books which deal with school volunteer programs include: Carter & Dapper (1974), Cuninggim & Muligan (1979), National Rural Development Institute (1987), and U.S. Government Printing Office (1976).

Typically, almost half of a volunteer group is organizational and administrative, with the other half being direct service providers (Saccomorrel, 1983). There are many things that volunteers can do. Some want to work directly with students, others do not. Accommodating the preferences of the volunteers will help to retain more of them.

According to Flannagan (1981) every volunteer group that is to have an influence on the community should consist of at least a banker, a lawyer, a school board member, merchants, law enforcement officers, and politicians. There are two distinct type of people who should be recruited for a good volunteer program. The first are the workers who provide direct service. The others are those who will seek funding, support, and smooth the way for accomplishing the goals of the program. Recruiting ideas can be found in AARP (1982), and Finnan, Fafard & Howell, (1984).

Summary

Most local resources for students with VI need to be created, usually by regular and special education teachers. Some resources will be available through agencies which will at least appear regularly at the county seat. Assistance programs in rural schools are likely to, at best, be composed of volunteers and itinerant specialists. Either the regular teacher or the special education teacher, depending on access will provide the majority of services to the students with VI . Many possibilities for transition of students with VI are suggested but almost all must be developed by the teachers of the student with VI . Most resources in rural areas for students with VI are not available until a teacher or a parent create or locates them. The student with VI , like many other students with disabilities, in rural areas is a low incidence student. Therefore, finding readymade resources is unlikely.

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Angela McPeake Whitaker
Christine Brown Votel
Clinical Resource Specialists
Mid-Shore Special
Education Consortium
Centreville, Maryland

MANAGING TROUBLING BEHAVIORS:A SYSTEM'S APPROACH

Schools nationwide are struggling with the growing trend to include all students in regular education programs. Reynolds and Birch (1982) wrote "the whole history of education for exceptional students can be told in terms of one steady trend that can be described as progressive inclusion". Over the past three decades, educators have found themselves challenged by "the latest" policies such as deinstitionalization, mainstreaming, zero reject policies, least restrictive environment, and delabeling.

In the past, most programs which provided for mainstreaming emphasized student placement in existing regular education programs. Students were mainstreamed when they were able to fit an existing mold. Currently, an increasingly insistent and powerful advocacy is demanding change. These supporters believe all students should be educated in the mainstream regardless of handicap - that regular education must develop meaningful curriculum to achieve this goal.

Current research suggests that regular and special educators share the responsibility for each student and create a comprehensive educational system capable of meeting the needs of all (Forest, 1987; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Gartner & Lipskey,1987). Collaborative consultation is an effective means to provide appropriate instruction of special education students placed in mainstream classes (Cook & Friend, 1991; Huefner, 1988; West & Idol, 1990). This method pairs regular education teachers who are knowledgeable about subject content with special educators who are trained in strategies to reach students with disabilities.

Students who display troubling behaviors may be the greatest challenge to any total inclusion model. By definition, these pupils demonstrate difficulties in interpersonal relationships, and show an inability to interact in socially acceptable ways (Gresham, 1988; Meadows, Neel, Parker & Timo, 1991). They interact less frequently and in more negative ways than their peers which decreases successful integration experiences (McGinnis & Goldstein, 1984). These disruptive classroom behaviors can interrupt the learning process. Evidence suggests that students who exhibit non-compliant behavior experience difficulty with the behavioral expectations demanded in most regular education classrooms and affect inclusionary efforts (Gable, McLaughlin, Sindelar, & Kilgore, 1993;Kerr & Zigmond, 1986;Kauffman & Wong, 1991).

Therefore, not only must inclusion have as an objective academic achievement, it must also strive to increase social competence, foster positive peer relationships and strengthen student-adult interactions. To meet these goals, regular and special education is charged with designing and implementing effective collaborative programming to address these distinct areas (Dougherty, 1994; Hines, 1994).

As if this were not challenging enough, rural educators face further stumbling blocks: a limited tax base for revenue, a need to deliver service over increased geographic distances, a potentially unstable financial base due to specialized economics, inadequate facilities, limited related services, high transportation costs (Howley,1991; Helge, 1986). Many rural education systems also lack access to training and funding for staff development (Knapczyk, Rodes, & Brush, 1994).

Despite the hindrances, rural school districts are not exempt from laws which support inclusion. The following review of a pilot study from Dorchester County, Maryland is one system's attempt to include students displaying troubling behaviors in regular settings.

Mentor Supported School Success Program: A Collaborative Effort to Manage Troubling Behaviors

Background

Dorchester is the largest county on Maryland's rural Eastern Shore. It borders the Chesapeake Bay and is crossed by several large rivers, including the Choptank and Nanticoke. Of the county's 30,000 residents, approximately 15,200 live in it's one city, Cambridge. The rest of the county's population is spread over 593 square miles.

Dorchester County Public Schools serves approximately 5,000 students in 12 schools. The county serves 14 percent of it's students through special education programs. Fifty-nine percent of the county's total enrollment is Caucasian; 40 percent is African-American. The Board of Education is allotted the largest proportion of county dollars, with the average per pupil expenditure being approximately 5,000 dollars. On average, in Maryland, counties spend $5,800 per pupil each year. Fifty-five percent of the county students are enrolled in the federally-funded free/reduced lunch program.

Program Objective

The program will offer supplementary support to present school programming in an effort to reduce inappropriate student behaviors. To support the countywide philosophy of inclusion, this program provides an additional resource, a mentor, to the existing collaborative efforts of regular and special education staff.

Target Population

Members of the school-based multidisciplinary team identified students exhibiting troubling behavior. Troubling behavior was defined as a disproportionately high number of office referrals when compared to the school average. These students also had lower grade point averages than their peers. The school team recommended five students to participate in each program. Priority was given to those elementary aged students previously recommended for expulsion from school by the superintendent because of unmanageable behavior.

All students were eligible for participation. Those students who were receiving special education services continued to do so as outlined on their Individualized Education Plan (I.E.P.).

Staffing

A mentor assists with individual behavioral management plans, supports classroom activities, provides additional monitoring of non-academic periods and helps teach the social skills training program.

Paraprofessionals were selected to serve as mentors. One source for mentors was the school system's substitute pool. Building administrators recruited substitutes who demonstrated consistent, effective behavioral management strategies.

The interview team selected applicants who seemed empathetic and nurturing. It is important to hire mentors who saw beyond the maladaptive behavior into the potential of these students.

Mentors are compensated hourly and receive no employee benefits. Each mentor was asked to commit to at least one year with the program.

Funding

The Mentor Supported School Success Program is funded through a cooperative agreement with various local and state agencies. One primary grant source is The Council for Children, Youth and Families who's mission is to preserve families thereby keeping all students in community schools.

Program Components

1.) **Integrated Behavior Management Plan:** An individual plan is designed for each student. The student is asked to comply with three targeted school rules. Teachers review and initial a daily check sheet at the close of each class period. Mentors review daily check sheets with students.

2.) **Daily Orientation & Wrap Up:** Students meet as a group with their mentor twice a day. A morning session is scheduled to review behavioral goals, monitor medication, and provide encouragement for the day ahead. In the afternoon, mentors review check sheets, discuss concerns, review homework assignments and provide reinforcements to those students who meet their targeted objectives. Students are escorted to their buses from this session.

3.) **Mentor Schedule:** A key to the success of this program is a carefully designed schedule for the mentor. The schedule is oriented around times individual students may need to be escorted to the office for medication, difficult classes, and recess periods. During recess the mentor organizes success oriented activities or helps with conflict resolution strategies. The schedule is designed by the program coordinator and approved by the school team. If students' need change, the schedule is adjusted.

4.) **Academic Assistance:** The mentor spends about twenty minutes per child each day providing individual instruction. The subject is determined by need. The mentor delivers this assistance within the assigned classroom.

5.) **Medication Monitoring:** If medication is prescribed in an attempt to manage behavioral excesses, the mentor escorts the student to the school nurse who administers the medication as scheduled. The mentor is also a critical link with the program coordinator when it is time for refills or if side effects are noticed.

6.) **Crisis Intervention:** If needed in a crisis, the office will page the mentor to the appropriate classroom. The mentor may attempt to calm the student within the room or he/she may remove the student for a short period of time.

7.) **Social Skills Training:** A social skills experience is provided weekly to students in this program. The goal is to increase students' ability to interact effectively with adults and peers. Four topics are stressed: relating, coping, cooperating, and communicating. The school guidance counselor meets with the students and mentor each week to provide the instruction. The mentor provides follow-up during the week.

8.) **Program Effectiveness:** The program will be evaluated by comparing students' school performance before and with mentor support. This will include reviewing grades, attendance, and number of office referrals. Pre- and post- behavior rating scales will also be given to students, teachers, and parents.

Summary

The Mentor Supported School Success Program is in it's first year of implementation, therefore statistical information is not presently available. A mid-year informal review suggest some positive results in all four pilot elementary schools. Staff indicate students are responding well to the program and seem to be benefiting from the various program components. Additionally, office referrals appear to have decreased and attendance improved.

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Denise Kaiser
Ohio Valley Educational Coop
La Grange, Kentucky 40031

LIFE MANAGEMENT: BRINGING RELEVANCE TO THE CLASSROOM

Secondary students with mild disabilities are unprepared to make a successful transition into adulthood because of the following problems: 1) the failure of the traditional curriculum to meet their needs; 2) a lack of skills for self-advocacy; 3) low motivation to remain in school; and 4) a lack of skills to make a successful transition to post-secondary settings (i.e. maintain employment, enter the military, enter college or enter other training programs). As a result, these students are often unprepared for employment and for living independently in the community.

Research shows that the dropout rate among students with mild disabilities is a major national problem for American education. Secondary students with mild disabilities, when considering all students who receive special education services, are the most at risk of dropping out of school. Fardig, Algozzine, Schwartz, Hensel, and Westling (1985) found that in a sample of rural students with mild disabilities, 69% finished the twelfth grade, a result implying that about 31% of these students dropped out of school. The High School and Beyond studies (Lichtenstein, 1987; Owings & Stocking, 1986), which reported national data, indicated that students who identified themselves as having a specific learning disability dropped out of school at higher rates than students who identified themselves as having other disabilities. Studies that compared special education dropout rates with control group dropout rates or normative data consistently showed that students with mild to moderate disabilities left school more often that students without disabilities (Bernoff, 1981; Bruininks, Thurlow, Lewis, & Larson, 1988; Hess & Lauber, 1985; Levin, Zigmond & Birch, 1985; Owings, & Stocking, 1986, Stephenson, 1985; White, Shumaker, Warner, Alley, & Deshler, 1980; Zigmond & Thornton, 1985). Furthermore, dropout special students demonstrated lower employment rates (Edgar, 1987).

Many different attempts have been made to prevent high-risk students from dropping out and to re-engage students who have already dropped out. Existing dropout interventions, already part of special education programs, include early identification, individualized approaches, smaller size classes, lower pupil-teacher ration, vocational education, employment preparation and job training, and counseling. While each of these may be necessary, they are not preventing students from dropping out of school. 1991-92 statistics show that 32.7% of the 3,180 students with disabilities in Kentucky who exited school dropped out. In many rural districts, the dropout rate among students with disabilities ranges from two to five times higher than the dropout rate among the total population.

The traditional curriculum at the secondary level does not meet the transitional needs of youth with mild disabilities. Traditional academic demands and/or graduation requirements, evidenced across the nation, have been the primary factors driving teachers' instructional content and delivery. According to Halpern (1992), "Curriculum content still tends to focus too much on remedial academics and not enough on functional skills. Instructional design often ignores the issues of maintenance and generalization which we have no reason to believe that the skills being taught in the classroom will be used in the community settings where they are relevant." More specifically, coursework often does not prepare students with those specific skills needed in the areas of personal/social interactions, daily living, occupational exploration and guidance, and self-advocacy, which allow for effective and successful transition into adulthood. A traditional curriculum offers very little linkage between the demands in the classroom and the demands placed on youth as functional members of the community.

Students with more severe disabilities often have been the recipients of community-based instruction and other programs designed to develop functional skills and employment training; however, students with mild disabilities have been required to enroll in courses that inadequately prepare them for the type of employment they are likely to pursue, and they have had very limited options for alternative programs. One alternative, vocational schools, typically do not allow admittance until eleventh grade, and even if a student does attend a vocational school, without the assistance of a collaborative teacher/vocational liasion and the implementation of accommodations and adaptations, the student has less chance of experiencing success.

Across the nation students with disabilities generally have a lack of skills for self-advocacy. Despite the inclusion of the transition component of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), little direct instruction is provided to students to develop an awareness of federal and state regulations and of self-advocacy skill development. Although in most school settings the IEP conference occurs on an annual basis, Ysseldyke, Algozzine, and Thurlow (1980) have reported than many students with disabilities are not involved at all in this basic special education program planning activity. Fenton, Yoshida and Kauffman (1979) similarly have noted that, if students are involved in IEP conferences, their involvement is passive at best. Even though students may be invited and attend their transition planning conference, few experience meaningful participation. Students interviewed in the Ohio Valley Cooperative region of Kentucky expressed that they did not feel that their transition plan reflected their goals for future career plans or community and recreational living but were rather the product of adult input. Students reported being "nervous" or "scared" because of all the teachers and adults and said they were "too chicken" to ask questions or request clarifications. According to Phillips (1990), academic programs for students with learning disabilities traditionally taught students how to compensate for skill deficits, but this instruction did not sufficiently prepare adolescents to advocate for themselves in an adult world.

Low motivation to remain in school is a widespread problem among students with mild disabilities. Gartner and Lipsky (1989) reported that 47% of adolescents with learning disabilities drop out of school by the age of 16. Low motivation is assuredly a contributing factor in this high statistic. Low motivation may be reflected in poor school attendance, low grades, and/or behavioral problems. Researchers have seen student motivation as a critical component in the effectiveness of academic interventions for adolescents with learning disabilities (Adelman & Taylor, 1983; Ellis, Deshler, Lenz, Schumaker, & Clark, 1991). Although current legislation encourages student involvement in transition planning, involvement is generally inert, and goals and objectives are traditionally teacher-generated. When students are not involved, there is a tendency for a lack of motivation on the students' part to achieve the stated goals and objectives.

Once the student exits high school, the student experiences an abrupt cutoff of the long-term resources and support that specially designed instruction has provided. Follow-up training is usually limited, with counselors not being available indefinitely. Some youth choose not to seek post-school support services. Other training programs such as those provided by the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation are often less readily available to students with mild disabilities than to students with more severe disabilities. Additionally, students with mild disabilities generally do not pursue post-high school opportunities. The National Longitudinal Transition Study showed that only 15% of students in special education proceeded on to any type of postsecondary education following completion of high school (Butler-Nalin, Marker, & Shaver, 1989). The 15% included approximately 10% in a vocational or trade school, less than 5% in a two-year college, and less than 2% in a four-year college. Furthermore, students with learning disabilities who have dropped out of school may pursue the military only to discover that a high school diploma is now required for application.

According to a study by Zetlin & Hossenini (1989) of six postschool case studies of young adults with mild disabilities, the students "were at a loss to plan for the future, maintained an unrealistic appraisal of their skills, and expressed discontent and frustration with their present situation." Sitlington and Frank (1990) examined the adult adjustment of 911 students with learning disabilities one year following high school graduation. They reported that only 54% of the graduates interviewed met the following criteria: (a) employed or otherwise meaningfully engaged; (b) living independently or with a friend, parent, or relative; (c) paying at least a part of their living expenses; and (d) involved in more than one leisure activity. They also reported that the majority of the graduates were employed in jobs with lower social status. Student with disabilities are often engaged in jobs which are menial, pay low wages, and support a low-praise environment. According to an editor of *Exceptional Parent* (1994), the U.S. Department of Education released a recent report to Congress that found that within three to five years after high school, only 20% of students with disabilities were functioning independently in living arrangements, social relationships, and employment. Another 43% were functioning independently in *at least* two of these categories.

The limited scope with which we have often approached transition reflects career development only with little or not emphasis on independent living outcomes. In an attempt to demonstrate the relevancy of school curriculum to adult living, the educators involved in the Kentucky Transition Project, a project coordinated by the Interdisciplinary Institute at the University of Kentucky and funded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (OSERS), Student Transition Enhancement Project (STEP) developed the course "Life Management," with a curriculum content that is functional and that carefully blends all domains of adult life: vocational , life skills, social, and academic. The course "Life Management" focuses on those transitional behaviors needed to become a responsible community/family member, citizen, employee, and productive leisurite/avocational participant. Outcomes and goals of this course are based on student and family choices, as well as individual needs and preferences. Students are given opportunities to learn about and/or directly experience an array of community options, and interagency collaboration (specifically transition planning, shared resources, and shared communication and information) is activated. Particular emphasis is placed on self-advocacy and problem-solving skill development. "Life Management" does not replace conventional academic or vocational education, but rather refocuses it to reflect the specific transitional needs of youth with disabilities.

"Life Management" improves life options for youth with disabilities and their families by providing access to educational transition experiences which promote personal choice, social integration and employability. Inherent in the "Life Management" curriculum are the philosophical underpinnings that students with disabilities can be empowered to make informed decisions about their future, take responsibility for those decisions, and can respond effectively to programs which promote generalization and maintenance of skills that lead to independent living.

The "Life Management" curriculum enhances the students' motivation throughout all four domains (life skills, social, academic, vocational) by employing a combination of teaching strategies and routines that emphasize hands-on activities, small group discussions, and self-discovery projects. Direct instruction, which represents the concepts and skills to be learned, is immediately followed by an activity which involves direct application, the incorporation of community resources, or small group discussion. A culminating performance has been designed for each curriculum area as well as a writing prompt and an open-ended response prompt, which promotes the application of problem-solving skills. All of the activities associated with "Life Management" provide students with ample opportunities to see the connection between the activities within the curriculum and the real world situations they will encounter throughout life. Students are taught to assume a participatory and/or leadership role during their transition planning meeting, enhancing their motivation and commitment to achieve their goals and objectives. When students are taught their rights and responsibilities according to IDEA, Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, coupled with the teaching of self-advocacy skills, they will be empowered to take responsible control of the transition process. The breadth of activities within the curriculum enhance students' motivation to remain in school by increasing self-esteem, creating a positive attitude toward school, and improving the students' level of achievement.

Students participating in the "Life Management" course will be instructed in a six-step management/decision-making model when establishing weekly transition or future goals. When students complete an in-depth self assessment, taking an inventory of their own strengths and weaknesses in determining what they need to learn to be successful, their role as the control agent increases, thereby increasing their likelihood of success. Students will also develop a transition plan for post-graduation (involving interagency collaboration), which may include employment options, post-secondary education options, military options, and vocational training options. Students with learning disabilities who are taught how to evaluate services concerning accommodations available at post-secondary settings will have a high rate of participation in post-secondary education options. When students gather information about schools which offer training in their desired field, are aware of the accommodations they need to be successful, and are aware of the accommodations and special services available in their program of interest, they will consider post-secondary education as a viable option.

Students who receive training in social skills for employment will have a higher rate of job maintenance. Two categories of skills employers value as significant factors in job maintenance are personal management skills (those skills related to the development of attitudes and behaviors required to get, keep, and progress on a job) and teamwork skills (those skills needed to work with others on the job). A survey was conducted by the STEP Transition Facilitators to determine those employability skills most desired by local prospective employers in rural settings. Repeatedly, employers expressed a need for employees who exhibited skills in problem-solving, self-control, communication, accepting positive and negative feedback, listening, and team work, as well as demonstrating a strong sense of work ethics. The "Life Management" curriculum provides direct instruction in all of these areas.

According to the National Information Center for Children and Youth with Disabilities (1993), four of the most fundamental transition skills students can have that will serve them well in a variety of adult situations are the following:

- the ability to assess themselves, including their skills and abilities, and the needs associated with their disability;
- awareness of the accommodations they need because of their disability;
- knowledge of their civil rights to these accommodations through legislation such as the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973; and
- the self-advocacy skills necessary to express their needs in the workplace, in educational institutions, and in community setting.

"Life Management" skillfully blends the basic tenets of transition into four domain areas: daily living, personal/social, occupational exploration and guidance, and community and federal program awareness. Woven throughout all domains in skill development in problem-solving and self-advocacy. "Life Management" includes such features as: academic expectations, learning links, related concepts, high school demonstrators, materials, commercial products, sample teaching/assessment strategies, ideas for incorporating community resources, linkages to other domains, culminating performances, writing prompts, open-ended response prompts, and sample IEP goals and objectives. In addition, each domain is accompanied by an assessment tool, designed to reflect the instructional content within each domain, and is easily administered and can be used for a variety of purposes (i.e., pre and post tests, quizzes, etc.) Accompanying the curriculum is a Transition Rubric and a Transition Plan Worksheet which are used when assessing the student's present level of performance in each area of transition. The worksheet can be used for multiple years and is particularly useful with the Individual Education Plan (IEP) development, as required by IDEA.

Assisting students with disabilities to make a successful transition from educational settings into the work force, adult life and their community is and should be a high national priority. The "Life Management" curriculum has carefully blended career education, strategic instruction, social skills and self-advocacy training into a unified program. Implementation of this curriculum will maximize our efforts to retain students with mild disabilties in school for as long as possible and equip them with the skills they will need to conduct their lives, both productively and pleasurably, in the communities in which they live.

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Laura A. Reissner
West Virginia University
Morgantown, West Virginia

CAN BOOKS ON TAPE MAKE A DIFFERENCE FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES WHO ARE NOT READ TO AT HOME?

While most people agree that listening to stories is a valuable way for young children to increase their vocabulary and their exposure to new and different ideas, there are many children who have not seen or had books read to them before they begin school. These children may not understand or appreciate the value of reading because they have not seen it as an important part of the lives of the people around them. They are unlikely to see many reasons to learn to read themselves (Warren, Prater, & Griswold, 1990). The responsibility for creating that desire to read is then placed on the classroom teacher. Teachers need to have ways to encourage and motivate those who are uninterested or unable to read in the early years of formal schooling because it appears to be easier to prevent learning problems early than to attempt to remediate them in later grades. It is widely accepted that good readers typically read both in and out of school (Allington, 1994).

Children At-Risk for Reading Failure

The motivational aspects of learning to read cannot be overemphasized. It is important to help children learn to enjoy reading as we teach them to read. Children need to learn to value reading so they will read for enjoyment as well as knowledge (Fractor, Woodruff, Martinez, & Teale, 1993). Without frequent independent reading children will not become proficient readers (Allington, 1977); and in order to become proficient readers they need to hear stories and become familiar with language in the context of stories.

Today's parents seem to understand that they should spend time reading to their young children because of the frequency with which they see this espoused on television and read about it in popular magazines and books (Manning, Manning, & Cody, 1988). There is evidence to suggest that children who are read to on a regular basis will independently "reread" familiar books to themselves or others before they learn to read (Teale & Martinez, 1988). Being read to in the home positively correlates with language development in emergent readers (Chomsky, 1972). Children who enjoy reading and come to school with a strong literature background are more likely to do well in formal reading instruction. Those who are not encouraged to engage in reading in the home probably will be less likely to be successful in reading later (Trelease, 1989).

Many feel that book reading interactions between parents and children are different in lower and higher socioeconomic status communities (Heath, 1982; Morrow, 1988; Teale, 1981). Marilyn Adams (1990) estimates that a typical middle class child enters first grade with 1,000 to 1,700 hours of one-on-one picture book reading, while the corresponding child from a low income family averages only 25 hours. It appears that many parents who do not read to their children do not remember being read to themselves (Johns, 1991). Heath (1982) looked at the differences in how parents interact and read to their children in two very different communities. She found that the children from the low SES community had a difficult time taking meaning from books because they had not experienced having stories read to them. However, it was interesting to note that in low SES parent-child interactions a great deal of creativity was observed. Perhaps low SES children were creative because the majority of their stories had been oral (Heath, 1982). Heath speculates that these children told stories which were rich and original because this was the main way for them to get their parent's attention. It may be that parents should be encouraged to continue the tradition of story telling with picture books. In this way parents with limited reading skills can still share books with their children and continue the traditional stories that were a part of their childhood.

Another interesting research finding regarding differences among parent-child interactions in families of different SES suggest that these children have less experience with open-ended questions such as, "how, why, and when" (Blank, 1975 cited in Morisset, 1991 #9). In lower SES settings "what" questions were used more frequently. Children who have not been exposed to this type of questioning may ultimately have a harder time adjusting to school where open-ended questioning is used. Making teachers aware of these possible differences may help them adjust their teaching strategies to ensure that all children have an opportunity to learn and respond in ways that are familiar to them. For some children a love of reading does develop in the home, for others it must be fostered in the school.

Becoming a Nation of Readers (1985) reported that students spend up to 70% of their reading instruction time doing workbook pages and isolated reading activities in spite of evidence that suggests this time may be better spent in literature-rich environments. These activities do not demonstrate how to read or promote a desire to read. For years researchers have been pointing out that children who read little are least likely to read well (Adams, 1990; Allington, 1977; Allington, 1994; Bell, 1993; Elster, 1994; Heath, 1982; Manning, et al., 1988; Morrow, 1988; Slavin, Karweit, & Wasik, 1992/1993; Teale & Martinez, 1988).

Children's Literature and Language Acquisition

Studies have demonstrated that children acquire language through active participation with their linguistic environment (Marzola, 1988; Strickland & Morrow, 1989). Literature provides one means

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in which a variety of language models to encourage language acquisition may be presented to children. Literature provides a critical opportunity to develop emerging language skills. Children who are engaged in the act of reading or listening to stories have the opportunity to see and hear language. However, since children at-risk for reading failure often do not read stories on their own nor are they read to, they may have little opportunity to develop fluent language skills. In order to become good readers and good language users, children must be given the opportunity to read and to hear good stories read to them. Children who come to school without the prerequisite experiences in hearing literature read to them may have failed to develop the prerequisite learning skills necessary to learn to read. Instruction for such children may best focus on these prerequisite skills rather than "skill and drill" activities (Sears, Carpenter, & Burstein, 1994).

Children's listening comprehension is usually more advanced than their reading comprehension (Cunningham, 1982; Horowitz & Samuels, 1985; Trelease, 1989). "If a child never hears a word, he will never say the word. If he can't hear or say it he will not be able to read or write it" (Trelease, 1989). Having a large listening vocabulary helps to increase reading vocabulary. Oral story reading is a significant source of vocabulary acquisition, regardless of whether the teacher explains word meaning to the students (Elley, 1989). Therefore, books read by the parent or teacher which are above the child's reading level can and should be enjoy together and used for learning opportunities. These books may spark an interest in other books that can be enjoyed alone on the child's reading level.

Repeated Reading

Repeated readings are commonplace in homes where parents read to their children before bed. Children ask parents to read special or favorite stories until the child can tell the parent what is going to happen on the next page before it is turned. For children who have not had the opportunity to hear stories read repeatedly in the home school becomes the only place to be exposed to repeated readings. Repeated reading has been shown to increase understanding of stories read orally and encourages better questioning (Dowhower, 1989; Martinez & Roser, 1985; Yaden, 1988). Martinez and Teale (1988) found that there are three types of library books: very familiar, those read over and over in school, familiar, those read once, and unfamiliar, those unread. They found that kindergartners would choose the very familiar books three times as often and familiar books twice as often as the unfamiliar books. However, teachers often try to expose children in their classes to a variety of stories written in many different styles during the beginning of the school year and typically do not have the opportunity to reread student's favorites until much later.

In classrooms where teachers have little time to provide repeated readings allowing children to listen to stories on tape may provide for more self-directed interaction with books. Books on tape allow for extensive story repetition which may help develop a child's sight word vocabulary. In many classrooms, "free reading" time is typically given to those who finish their work quickly. However, whether a child actually engages in reading during this time period probably depends on whether or not the has the skills to read. A child will not read during free reading if he cannot do so. By providing children with independent reading opportunities and books on tape it is hoped that they will be able to pay greater attention to the story and will be able to reread the story as often as they wish. This method may provide a simple and effective ways to provide children who have not had enough readiness activities with print the chance to gain some of the added time they need to catch up their peers.

Books On Tape

Current research suggests that children with disabilities have more difficulty processing auditory information than their nondisabled peers (Begley, 1994). The combination of visual and auditory stimuli by using books on tape may help to increase comprehension for these readers. Additionally, books on tape make the benefits of repeated reading accessible to children without consuming excessive teacher time. Further, books on tape make it possible for parents who do not read well themselves to share stories with their children. Listening to stories is a beneficial language acquisition strategy for children who are at-risk for reading failure (Carbo, 1978; Chomsky, 1978; Kies, Rodriguez, & Granato, 1993; Roser, Hoffman, & Farest, 1990; Sudzina & Foreman, 1990; Teale, 1981).

For children who are poor readers providing books on tape is one means of adapting assistance without modifying the level of the reading material. Using this strategy, children are able to follow along in a story independently while listening to the taped version through headphones. This may be very beneficial for children who are distracted by other events happening in a classroom as the headphones may help them concentrate by filtering out outside noises. This strategy may also be beneficial for children who need additional time with a story before they understand it or can read it by themselves.

Sudzina and Foreman (1990) found that first grade children who participated in a Chapter 1 program that used recorded books did improve their reading skills. By comparing scores of children previously involved in Chapter 1 who did not use recorded books with children who did use the books they found that their word attack skills, comprehension and vocabulary skills all improved. While most children made significant gains during the three years of observation it was noted that the mean scores on standardized tests for the children involved in the recorded book group showed a higher concentration of students above the mean than previous

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years. Possibly even more important is the attitudinal data which were collected from the children. They reported that the books helped them learn to read, they felt confident in their reading ability. Teachers reported that the children were excited about books and reading and that they even asked their parents to buy these books for them to read again.

Chomsky (1978) attempted to increase the fluency of five third grade children who had severe difficulty with reading fluency and decoding by having the children repeatedly listen to audiotapes until they could read the text fluidly by themselves. In this reading-while-listening method Chomsky found that all five improved their word recognition skills and their oral reading speed, as well as their motivation to read. For at least 15 minutes once a day the children listened to their commercially prepared, taped book. These children listened to the first tape up to twenty times before they were able to master the material. During the four months of the project the children successfully read five or six books, subsequent books were read fluently in a shorter period of time. Parents and teachers reported significant generalization abilities and an improved attitude toward reading after the project. For children who have experienced so much difficulty in learning to read the success was a big factor for them.

Books on tape may provide children who have difficulty learning to read through a phonics approach, those who have limited print exposure or those who have repeatedly failed to learn to read with an appropriate reading model. Students hear the correct phrasing and pronunciation of the words and they can listen to the tape as often as they wish. Carbo (1978) used books on reading level for eight children with learning disabilities in reading. Three techniques, recording entire books, recording parts of books for individual students, and a combination of the first two methods where longer sections of books were recorded and eventually used by more than one student were used to increase sight word vocabulary and comprehension skills. Carbo found that all three methods worked with all eight of the students with learning disabilities and with other students as well. All students developed an interest in reading that wasn't there previously and they were more willing to try to read materials they would not have read earlier.

Summary

Many children are at risk for reading difficulty due to poor concepts about print, limited exposure to print before formal schooling, and because of learning disabilities in the area of reading. Children who come from low SES homes may be at risk because of lack of experience with printed material. Children with disabilities may be at risk because of difficulties in auditory and visual processing. In such cases, reading instruction is probably better spent in an authentic reading environment that exposes them to printed material rather than in drill and practice activities. Repeated reading including, books on tape, gives children the opportunity for exposure to language enriched printed material.

By adopting a repeated reading method of using books on tape it is possible to help children with limited exposure to print have the same opportunities afforded to their peers who live in a print rich environment. By enabling children to hear stories while they hold the book and turn the pages for themselves may provide another support for literacy development in children at-risk for reading difficulty. While this method has not been clearly evaluated it appears that it may be a valuable tool for teachers to use with children who are not having success with drill and practice reading instruction.

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Jeannie Manuelito and Martha Johnson
Southwest Communication Resources
EPICS (Education for Parents of Indian
Children with Special Needs)
P.O. Box 788
Bernalillo, NM 87004

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY WITH NON-INDIAN SERVICE PROVIDERS

This information is provided by Education for Parents of Indian Children with Special Needs (EPICS) Project. EPICS is a national Parent Training and Information (PTI) project located in Bernalillo, New Mexico. The EPICS project has provided training and information to many Indian families in New Mexico, and across the country.

When Indian parents talk with service providers about their child, there are some basic skills that can make communication more effective. For parents to become more effective at communicating with service providers, parents need to express their ideas and questions so that they are understood. As parents, we must also listen to what the service providers say and let them know if we do not understand or if we disagree with what they are saying to us.

Parents of children with special needs must communicate with many different professionals. It is important that communication is effective for everyone. There are five basic skills which parents can learn to communicate effectively.

1. When you do not understand, ask for clarification.
2. Share information to help the professional to understand.
3. When you like something, make positive statements.
4. Tell the service providers your thoughts especially when you do not agree.
5. At the end of the meeting, review information shared and commitments made to make sure you all understand the same thing.

None of these skills are new inventions. Indian parents may already use them in their everyday lives with family and friends. However, they may not feel comfortable communicating with unfamiliar people or in new situations.

These basic skills will help Indian parents to become more comfortable and involved in their children's' educational and health programs and to gain the confidence and insight of being active partners.

1. When you do not understand, ask questions:

Parents of children with special needs find themselves in many situations where communication is difficult. Individual Education Plan (IEP) meetings, meetings with diagnosticians, therapists, medical professionals are just a few. Parents of children with disabilities have many questions and need answers. Is my child okay? Will he walk? Will he talk? How do I get help? Asking these questions help parents and families understand their child's disability. By asking questions, parents become more informed and begin to participate in the planning and decision making for their child.

As part of their cultural upbringing, many American Indians are taught not to ask questions. American Indians are taught to respect people of authority (tribal leaders, tribal councilmen/women) and within some Indian cultures, asking questions is viewed as disrespectful. It is assumed that the people of authority will provide all the information that a person needs to know.

Service providers, on the other hand, are trained to ask and answer questions, and they want to hear what parents have to say. It is customary for some Indian parents to remain quiet and not ask questions, it is sometimes assumed that the parent is uncaring or understands what has been said. In reality, the parent may have lots of questions but dare not ask.

Questions clarify meaning, and others will benefit from the questions you ask. Remember it is not impolite when dealing with service providers to ask questions, they want you to ask.

If parents are unfamiliar with certain words, they should ask for an explanation of the words being used; an explanation in simple terms; or examples can help you to understand.

A helpful strategy to use before a meeting is to write down your questions. It is also important to write down the kinds of answers you are looking for so you can refer back to them.

2. Share your thoughts and information

When Indian parents deal with service providers, they assume that the therapist, educator, or physician know what needs to be done. Parents may be hesitant about asking questions or providing information to the professionals. They often expect the professional to provide the needed treatment without any input from them.

More and more service providers are recognizing parents as experts on their children. Indian parents and extended family members spend more time with their child than anyone else.

As experts, parents can provide much valuable information to teachers, therapists, doctors, and other service providers. Often parents can provide information that no one else has. Parent needs to recognize they are the experts and that they can help service providers by sharing the information about their child.

Laws such as Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) mandate that parents be involved in the decision making process for their child's education and early intervention program. Parents must also take part in any decision regarding medical treatment for their child. They are expected to share the unique information they have about their child so that good decisions can be made. By sharing this information, service providers are better able to meet some of the parents' expectations for their child.

3. If you like something, say so.

In stressful situations, people may tend to focus only on the negative things and forget to see the positive. In any relationship, it is important to recognize the positive things that the other person has done. Compliments boost a person's morale, as well as giving that individual a better idea of what strategies and results are expected. A person who feels appreciate is going to work even harder. This is true for everyone, and most people can remember the good feelings that came with compliments at home, school, or work.

Appreciation of ones' effort is important. It works that way with service providers. If they feel that the work they do with your child is appreciated, they will work harder. An honest and natural positive comment from a parent can go a long way to keep a service provider motivated.

For some Indian parents it is customary not to give verbal compliments. They were taught to give appreciation in other ways. When dealing with service providers, this is an appropriate way to show appreciation. A simple "thanks" will go a long way.

4. Voice your disagreement

Many Indian parents learned not to voice disagreement when tribal authorities speak. They learned to listen with respect. These same parents may be hesitate to voice disagreements with service providers who serve them.

When someone shares a different opinion, it helps people look at the problem from more angles and seek creative alternatives. Consequently, they may find more solutions. Good ideas often are not voiced because people are afraid of looking foolish. It is important to overcome that fear, because a different view may force the group to think in better ways.

Sometime meetings between parents and service providers can become emotionally charged and tense. Statements made at meetings can make parents feel angry, scared, frustrated, upset, or sad. Parents can not always control what other people say at meetings, but they can control how they respond or answer. The following offer suggestions when meetings become overheated.

a. Ask for a short break to rethink what has been said.
b. Ask for the meeting to be rescheduled.
c. Prepare ahead of time and bring along a friend, relative or advocate.

5. At the end of a meeting, review and clarify any unresolved issues.

At the end of a meeting, it is helpful to review information and decisions that were made in the meeting. Parents often feel reluctant to do this because they assume that the professionals will do what is important for their child. Moreover, they may assume that professionals are in a hurry and do not want to spend any more time than is absolutely necessary. Yet, parents are decision makers for their children, and it's most important they walk away with a clear understanding of what has been heard and decided. Also, parents need to make sure that their own contributions are clearly understood by the service providers.
Therefore, it crucial to make sure that everyone understands and agrees on the information shared and the outcome of the meeting.

Frequently, issues come up in meetings, but do not get resolved. Therefore, a short review of the session also brings to attention all those loose ends that still need to be considered. It is important that either the parent or a service provider do the review; parents are often reluctant, but we encourage them to provide the summary of the meeting. By providing the summary, parents will know if they have a clear understanding of the information shared and the decisions made during the meeting. If there are any misunderstandings, they can be resolved at that time instead delaying to next meeting.

One of the most important and helpful things' parents can do is to learn to communicate effectively. These basic skills will empower parents to better advocate for their children's educational and health programs. Parents can be more active partners as they work with professionals for the future of their children.

Dr. Sam Minner
Jolynn Tsosie
Rebekah Newhouse
Melissa Owens
Jesse Holiday
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona

BENEFITS OF CULTURAL IMMERSION ACTIVITIES IN A SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

In many areas of the United States there is a shortage of special education teachers. More specifically, special educators trained to work with Native American students are in extremely high demand. Mahan and Rains (1990) indicated that programs that utilize cultural immersion rather than relying on courses or books are quite powerful and result in well prepared professionals. The Rural Special Education Project (RSEP), a school-based special education teacher preparation program located on the Navajo Indian Reservation in Kayenta, Arizona addresses the issue of cultural immersion. Approximately one half of the students in the project are Anglo and one half are Native American.

The RSEP is a partnership between Northern Arizona University's (NAU) (located in Flagstaff, AZ) Center for Excellence in Education (CEE) and the Kayenta Unified School District (KUSD). All project participants work in the classrooms at KUSD or Monument Valley High School in Utah.

When two cultures are placed together there are always barriers that must be overcome. Communication is an obstacle that must be dealt with anywhere, but when the language is different from the language one knows, this complicates matters. Many of the Anglo participants found this to be true in their classrooms. For example, often times a student would answer a question in Navajo instead of English knowing that the teacher intern did not know what s/he was saying. This has the same effect on certain students who do not understand English very well and may be confused when it is spoken in the classroom. Students often get frustrated because they do not know the language. Some students live with their grandparents who speak only Navajo in the home. This leaves students partially bilingual, knowing a little Navajo and knowing a little English but not fluent in either language. This causes many problems in school, as well as the home, because they do not completely understand what is being said. Problems between the teacher and the student may arise. In some cases, it may cause the child to be labeled as learning disabled when the problem is primarily a language one. Part of the RSEP includes learning a Navajo vocabulary. This helped in certain situations with students. When the Anglo participants began using words and phrases with their students, they found that the students listened more and seemed to have a certain amount of respect for them. This also made the RSEP participants aware of a problem with prejudging and labeling students incorrectly. This is only one of the various barriers.

Other barriers teachers may encounter in the Navajo culture deal with traditions and taboos, many of which are taught to children at a very young age. These include; letting the elderly speak without interruption, Navajo children should be seen and not heard, when a child speaks above an elder this shows great disrespect because the elder is older and much wiser, therefore children should listen and learn. This can cause many problems in the classroom. The children become very confused as to how they should act. At home they are taught to remain quiet and listen, where as in the classroom they are asked to speak their mind. When a child sits quietly in the classroom this leads teachers to believe that the student is not trying or s/he may have learning problems.

Other problems may arise when a teacher verbally or physically praises a child. Navajo children are taught that any physical contact or verbal play may lead to incest. Many times this causes these children to become embarrassed which may lead to an uncomfortable situation. Physical touch is needed at certain times. For example, some students, such as those with autism, communicate through a portable keyboard known as a communicator. In order for these students to use the communicators, they must have the help of another person, and this help requires physical touch. One Native American participant feels that more human contact is needed among her people. She believes this would build their confidence and increase their self esteem. Certain people in the native American culture feel that some traditions and taboos need to change with the times while others should remain.

One taboo in the Navajo culture deals with the handling of certain animals. More specifically, they are not to touch frogs or snakes or handle any kind of reptiles whether they are dead or alive. The reasoning behind this belief says that if someone does touch an animal they will be cursed with infection and sickness because of it. This taboo has a great effect in the classroom, especially in a science classroom. In many biology classes in high school, students are required to dissect a frog or a pig. Teachers on the reservation need to be aware of this belief and need to adapt their curriculum to it. They need to be sensitive what is practiced in the Navajo culture.

RSEP prepares future teachers for work on the reservation. The Native American participants share their traditions with the non-Native American participants. This allows the Anglos to keep a record of taboos and other cultural beliefs that may cause problems in the classroom. Without a program like this, many teachers make mistakes and may offend many of their students.

There are other cultural situations outside the classroom which RSEP prepares the Anglo participants for. The students who moved from Flagstaff to Kayenta were expected to give up many conveniences. They found that they took many things for granted before they went from an urban to a rural society. For example, laundry now had to be done at the one laundromat in town. There is not a variety of fast food restaurants to choose from. For entertainment, one cannot just turn on a television and switch the channels in search of one's favorite show because there are no television stations in Kayenta. In order to watch television, one must have cable. There are no movie theaters or dance clubs to attend on the weekends. However, all have found and enjoyed many alternatives to these types of entertainment. Kayenta offers some great hiking and other outdoor activities that the students take advantage of on a regular basis.

Students have also had to adapt to a slower paced society. Coming from a hurried lifestyle and often getting things taken care of in one or two days, it was quite challenging for the students to slow down. For instance, a couple of students were frustrated after waiting a month before their phone was hooked up, while another group of students asked for a plumber three times while their plumbing backed up and flooded their home. Although each of these things was an inconvenience to the students, they were both taken care of in time.

Many times teachers come to the reservation unaware of the culture and traditions. The following information was taken from informal interviews conducted by participants in the RSEP. Six Anglo female teachers and six Anglo male teachers were interviewed form two different high schools. Approximately fifty percent were from Kayenta, Arizona and fifty percent were from Monument Valley, Utah. We found that many felt that they would have benefited from a program such as RSEP. They expressed that it would have helped them understand their students better. It would give them a better idea of what and how to teach because they would understand the culture. They would recognize the language barrier and know how to deal with it. By going through a program like RSEP, they would experience living in a rural area without the conveniences they may be used to. Two of the teachers that we talked with did go through a program similar to RSEP. The program sent them to rural settings for student teaching. One teacher who went through that program has been teaching on the reservation for four years now. The other teacher recently accepted a job to teach in Kayenta. Because of that program these teachers felt they were well prepared to teach on the reservation.

The participants in RSEP 94-95, nine Native Americans and nine Anglos, have gained a great deal from this experience, both culturally as well as educationally. An informal survey was conducted with this class. The question that was asked; how each person felt they had benefited from this program. Many Native American students expressed that RSEP has given them the opportunity to further their education without having to go to a university campus. By taking classes in Kayenta, they did not have to relocate their families. One Native American student feels that culturally, this program has helped him relate to other cultures. This program has given the Native American students a chance to see the Anglo culture in a way that may be different from the way they were taught.

After spending twenty hours a week in the classroom for nine months, both native American and Anglo participants feel that they are more confident in the classroom. As one Native American student said, she has "learned how some (teachers) can handle their classroom and (how) some need that extra help." Another student says she is able to apply what she has learned in her NAU class to a real-life classroom setting instead of reading about it in a textbook. This is something that is not available in a traditional campus based teacher training program.

The Anglo students have benefited culturally in various ways. Every Anglo participant shared that they now knew what it was like to be a minority. This gives these teacher interns an edge when they enter their classroom. They will be able to empathize with each and every one of their students, whether they be in the majority or in the minority. Being on the reservation has made many of the participants look at themselves for who they are. It has brought out some prejudices that certain people did not know they had. By bringing these into the light, it has allowed us to deal with them and overcome them as well. The experience has been a humbling one. The participants, primarily the Anglos, have learned to appreciate people for who they are. They have learned to take life as it comes. Problems that may have seemed big at one point in their lives are now insignificant compared to what they have seen and dealt with being on the reservation.

RSEP is not just another program that benefits its participants educationally. It has brought two cultures together in a positive way. It does not only teach its participants how to be teachers, it shows them how to live and learn from each other. Unfortunately, in some work places, whether it be a business, a corporation or a school, there is prejudice and discrimination. It is a part of life that we need to continue to try to eliminate. Programs such as the RSEP promote cultural awareness, sensitivity and understanding.

***Note:** The information included in this paper are the perceptions of the authors regarding their cultural experiences. The information obtained through informal surveys may lack the scientific rigor to be generalized. However, we do feel this information in interesting and may have some practical implications.

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MaryAnn Demchak, Ph.D.
University of Nevada, Reno
Reno, NV

COLLABORATIVE TEAMING TO MEET THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS STUDENTS WITH SEVERE, MULTIPLE DISABILITIES

When students have severe, multiple disabilities, it is not unusual to have multiple professionals involved in providing educational and related services for that student. Due to the effects of the combination of cognitive, sensory, and/or physical impairments, a variety of professionals are likely to be involved (e.g., teacher, occupational therapist, physical therapist, communication specialist, adaptive physical educator). In special education the typical approach to providing services to students with disabilities has involved a multidisciplinary approach that emphasizes a pull-out model. In this model the professionals typically work in isolation to complete discipline specific assessments, to develop goals and objectives for the Individualized Education Plan (IEP), and to provide services to the student. Unfortunately, providing services in this manner can result in conflicting recommendations from professionals, areas of need not being addressed, and objectives being targeted in isolation rather than as part of natural routines. As a result of these limitations, it is beneficial to examine an alternative approach to teaming.

An alternative to the multidisciplinary approach is the transdisciplinary teaming, or collaborative teaming, approach. In this approach, there is an emphasis on sharing information and expertise across traditional discipline boundaries (Orelove & Sobsey, 1991). The transdisciplinary teaming approach emphasizes assessing students with disabilities within the context of functional routines and activities and subsequently teaching targeted skills within the activities in which they are needed (Downing & Bailey, 1990). For example, if a student with visual impairments needs to learn orientation and mobility skills, that student would be taught those skills where they are actually needed (e.g., going to and from classes, walking to and from school). Skills involving vision, hearing, motor, cognition, and communication are used in a wide variety of everyday activities and are not typically used in isolation. The transdisciplinary approach to teaming also involves professionals working together to develop goals and objectives rather than "owning" discipline specific objectives. When professionals share responsibility for developing and implementing goals and objectives as well as target instruction in natural routines, it is more likely that the student with severe disabilities will maintain and generalize the targeted skills.

The collaborative teaming approach is especially relevant to rural communities due to the fact that many disciplines (e.g., occupational and physical therapists, vision specialists, adaptive physical educators, audiologists) are not available on a regular basis. A frequent practice is for professionals from these disciplines to live in an urban area and to contract with a rural school district for a specified number of visits. It is essential that a strategy is in place that increases the likelihood that the needs of students with severe, multiple disabilities will be met when these professionals are not present. The collaborative, or transdisciplinary, teaming approach is one way a team can work together to ensure that educational needs are being addressed throughout the school year in the context of meaningful activities. Personnel from these specialized areas can act as consultants to collaborate with rural special educators to enhance the educational services being provided to students with severe, multiple disabilities (Gold, Russell, & Williams, 1993).

The purpose of this presentation is to provide practitioners with guidelines for implementing a collaborative teaming approach to delivery of services to students with severe, multiple disabilities. Additionally, a checklist for evaluating current team functioning (Demchak, Alden, Bergin, Lacey, & Ting, in press) will be shared. The guidelines for successful implementation of transdisciplinary teaming are organized according to (a) team development, (b) assessment practices, (c) development of goals and objectives, (d) service delivery, (e) training team members, and (f) monitoring.

Team Development

The various disciplines represented on a particular student's educational team are dictated by student need. At a minimum, the team will include the teacher(s), family member(s) and student (as appropriate). When a student has multiple disabilities, the number of professionals can dramatically increase to include a wide variety of other professionals (e.g., occupational and physical therapists, vision specialist, hearing specialist/audiologist, speech/language pathologist, school psychologist, adaptive physical educator, vocational/transition specialist). If any paraprofessionals are involved in providing educational services to the student, it is essential that they be included in the collaborative teaming process. Each participant brings a unique perspective to the team. Ensuring that all relevant individuals are included in the teaming process will increase the likelihood that the students educational needs will be addressed effectively.

Assessment Practices

Assessments are conducted for a variety of purposes: screening, eligibility, program development, and program evaluation. When assessments are conducted for the purpose of educational program development, a recommended best practice is that the assessments be conducted within daily routines and activities in the student's natural environment(s) (Sternat, Messina, Nietupski, Lyon, & Brown, (1977). Brown et al. (1979)

provides a framework useful for assessing within natural settings. This ecological inventory process involves examining environments, subenvironments, activities, and skills relevant for the targeted student. Subsequently, the student's performance of the identified skills is assessed to determine whether or not the student completes the skill, why completion does not occur, and what to do if the skill is missing (e.g., adaptations, direct teaching). Related services personnel should assess within the context of these activities as indicated by student need. For example, a communication specialist might observe a student at the school cafeteria (i.e., the environment) when the student is at the serving counter (i.e., the subenvironment) picking up the tray (i.e., the activity). The communication specialist could provide strategies to facilitate communicative and social interactions between the workers and the student (i.e., specific skills). At times, specialists might also chose to complete discipline-specific assessments in order to gather particular information. Assessment results are then shared between all team members in order for collaboration to occur in developing goals and objectives for the IEP.

Development of Goals and Objectives

Development of IEP goals and objectives should be done by the whole team rather than each team member developing goals and objectives in isolation. When goals and objectives are developed in isolation, as is frequently the case in a multidisciplinary approach, some educational needs of students may not be met. In some instances, professionals may write conflicting goals and objectives. Additionally, the teacher(s) and paraprofessional(s) who are involved with the student on a daily basis can have an extremely large number of objectives to be addressed. Finally, such an approach can lead to writing objectives that target skills in isolation rather than as part of meaningful activities.

An alternative to writing IEP goals and objectives in this manner is to write them as a team. Related service needs (e.g., motor skills, communication) are embedded, or infused, within objectives that target functional activities. As a result, it is more likely that the targeted skills will be addressed within the context in which they are actually needed. For example, the following objective involved collaboration by the parent, classroom teacher, communication specialist, and occupational therapist:

> When given free time, Anna will use her communication cards, with line drawings depicting her choices, to choose her free time activity without prompts on 3 consecutive opportunities.

As a result of collaboration between professionals, communication and motor skills are targeted within the context of a meaningful activity.

Service Delivery

The transdisciplinary approach involves a combination of direct services as well as consultation in addition to integrated delivery of services, block scheduling, and on-going communication between professionals. In order to be effective as consultants, related services personnel must sometimes have "hands-on" contact with the students (York, Rainforth, & Giangreco, 1990). Therefore, specialists should sometimes assist with teaching the student with severe, multiple disabilities in natural settings. For example, the communication specialist may sometimes accompany the student to the school cafeteria in order to be a more effective consultant to the classroom teacher and paraprofessional(s). An essential component of service delivery in the transdisciplinary approach is the provision of services through "integrated therapy." That is, related skills (e.g., motor, vision, hearing, communication) are taught within the context of meaningful activities rather than in isolation (Rainforth & York, 1987). Block scheduling refers to assigning a larger amount of time (e.g., 2 hours) to a classroom rather than devoting a smaller amount of time to pulling out individual students for therapy (Rainforth & York, 1987). Using a larger amount of time for working within a classroom allows the specialist to have time to provide direct services as well as to consult with those who will actually be implementing services on a regular basis (i.e., teachers and paraprofessionals). Finally, it is essential that the team have a system of ongoing communication in place. Specialists may not be available for a week or more when questions arise. Therefore, it is necessary to have a system in place for documenting questions that arise in between visits. For example, related services personnel may simply be provided with a mailbox or communication file in the classroom. Such a procedure allows the daily staff to list their questions that the specialist can answer on their next trip to the classroom.

Training Team Members

Another crucial component of the transdisciplinary teaming approach involves training of team members. As previously mentioned, transdisciplinary teaming involves release of roles beyond traditional discipline boundaries. In order for transdisciplinary, or collaborative, teaming to be successful, sharing information and expertise must occur at several levels. Utley (1993) suggested that sharing information and expertise involves (a) role extension (i.e., increasing expertise in one's own discipline), (b) role enrichment (i.e., developing a greater awareness of terminology and best practices of other disciplines), (c) role expansion (i.e., making observations and recommendations beyond one's own discipline), (d) role exchange (i.e., implementing knowledge and skills of another discipline while under supervision), (e) role release (i.e., ongoing practice of acquired skills of another discipline), and (f) role support (i.e., ongoing support and monitoring). This process of role extension to role support is integral to the efficacy of transdisciplinary teaming. Typically, the classroom teacher acts as the primary facilitator (i.e., the one who carries out instruction for all IEP goals and objectives). Other professionals will train the teacher through use of role enrichment, role expansion, role exchange, and role release to allow the primary facilitator to acquire the knowledge and competencies necessary to be successful in implementing all IEP objectives. Depending upon the needs of the student, several professionals could be releasing roles to the primary facilitator. Additionally, the primary facilitator will be releasing roles to others (e.g., the paraprofessionals as well other professionals). For example, when the communication specialist is accompanying the student to the cafeteria, the teacher may release roles related to instructing the student in walking to the cafeteria, moving through the line, and so forth. Whenever role release occurs, the training should be conducted by a qualified person and should be documented. Documentation is required in order to demonstrate that the person to whom the role is being released actually exhibited acquisition of the targeted competencies. Additionally, written or pictorial guidelines should be left so that the individual has information to which to refer when the individual who released the role is not readily available for consultation.

Monitoring

Finally, it is essential that on-going monitoring, or role support, be provided to team members to safeguard that procedures are being implemented as intended. In some instances, team members may need to receive additional training if procedures are being implemented incorrectly. Additionally, student progress must be monitored so that modifications can be made when a student is making little or no progress. Team meetings should be held regularly to allow for a forum in which all members can get together regularly (i.e., more often than a yearly IEP meeting) to review student progress. Team meetings allow all members to share concerns, problem solve, review previously released roles, and begin providing new training as needed. Regular team meetings can decrease the recurrent isolation experienced by rural special educators.

Conclusion

The benefits of transdisciplinary, or collaborative, teaming can be numerous. Assessments are more practical and beneficial, skill acquisition may occur more quickly, and maintenance as well as generalization of skills may be facilitated. Collaborative teaming may also lead to more positive teacher attitudes (Dunn, 1990). Transdisciplinary teaming appears to be an effective approach to providing educational services to students with severe, multiple disabilities.

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MaryAnn Demchak, Ph.D.
Christine O. Cheney, Ed.D.
University of Nevada, Reno
Reno, Nevada

PREPARING RURAL EDUCATORS OF STUDENTS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES: SUMMER INSTITUTES AND ONGOING SUPPORT

Students with serious emotional disturbance or severe, multiple disabilities display intensive educational needs. Unfortunately, special education teachers frequently do not possess the competencies needed to meet these intensive needs. The lack of adequately prepared teachers frequently occurs because teachers may be teaching out of the area in which they are licensed. Secondly, in rural areas special education teachers are expected to teach a variety of students. These teachers are typically prepared to teach students with mild to moderate disabilities. However, it is not unusual for these teachers to be expected to provide services to one or more students who are seriously emotionally disturbed or severely, multiply disabled. These teachers typically need, and ask for, additional information and training in order to meet the more intensive educational needs of these students. One of the goals of this project, **PR**eparing **E**DUCATORS OF **S**TUDENTS WITH **S**EVERE DISABILITIES (**Project PRESS**), addresses the issues of rural teachers:

> Project PRESS will provide additional preparation to rural special educators in the areas of serious emotional disturbance and severe, multiple disabilities.

By addressing this goal, the project improves the educational services being provided to students who are seriously emotionally disturbed or severely, multiply disabled. The educational services provided to these students reflect current state-of-the-art procedures emphasized within the project. Project PRESS stresses individualization of education which emphasizes inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes, involvement of families in educational decision-making, integration of specialized services into ongoing educational activities, and promotion of meaningful participation in community settings.

Training Needs

Unfortunately, many of the teachers of students with serious emotional disturbance and those with severe, multiple disabilities do not possess needed competencies. Prior to 1984 Nevada used a generic credential that allowed certified teachers to teach any type of student with disabilities. This method of certification resulted in teachers who had minimal competencies in specialized areas such as the low incidence disabilities. In 1984 Nevada instituted a two-tier process of licensure in which teachers first obtain a generalist resource endorsement which allows them to teach students with mild to moderate disabilities. In order to teach students with serious emotional disturbance and students who are severely, multiply disabled, teachers are required to earn a second endorsement for that specialized area. Unfortunately, teacher shortages frequently result in districts hiring teachers with the generalist endorsement to teach students with low incidence disabilities. Therefore, these teachers are teaching in areas for which they do not hold an appropriate license and do not possess the necessary competencies to provide appropriate educational services to students with serious emotional disturbances or severe, multiple disabilities.

When the two-tier certification system was instituted, teachers who were certified under the old system were not required to update their endorsements. Thus, many of these teachers continue to teach students with low incidence disabilities and need to have their competencies expanded as well as updated. For example, competencies are needed in integrating their students, using nonaversive approaches to behavior management, implementing functional curriculum, employing effective instructional procedures, and so forth.

The Special Education Branch of the Nevada Department of Education completed a survey of special education teachers, related services personnel, and administrators in northern Nevada regarding areas in which they would most like training. Two hundred seventy one professionals (including those who work with low incidence populations) responded to this survey. The four areas most frequently mentioned included:

Curriculum: Intervention strategies, instructional materials, language development, social skills development

Least Restrictive Environment: Special education/regular education interface, models for pre-referral interventions, collaborative/cooperative models for service delivery

Behavior Management: Dealing with aggressive students, etc.

Assessment: Identification of emotionally disturbed students, roles and responsibilities in multidisciplinary teams

Other areas identified for training needs included:

Due Process: Procedural safeguards, surrogate parents, confidentiality, legal responsibilities

Early Childhood: Assessment, curriculum, specialized populations such as drug-addicted babies

Secondary Transition: Community-based models, interagency models

Parent-professional Partnership: Communicating with parents, parent participation in conferences

Medically Fragile Students: Evaluation, placement, services

Technological Aids/Services: Computers, adaptive and augmentative communication devices

Linguistic/Cultural Diversity: Assessment, curriculum, evaluation

Orientation/Mobility Services

Vocational/Occupational Services: Curriculum, student-community partnerships

The results of this survey emphasize areas in which skills need to be improved and also highlight the fact that special education professionals themselves realize that there are areas in which their skills need improvement. Although this survey did not summarize results separately for low incidence populations, teachers of these students were included in the survey and the areas identified as needs are all important competencies for these teachers.

Providing Training through Summer Institutes

In response to these training needs, we developed Project PRESS, a 2-week summer institute supporting up to 35 rural educators who stay on campus and earn two graduate credits for successful completion of the institute. We give first priority to rural special education teachers; however, related service providers and general education teachers are accepted as space permits. A combination of state and federal funding sources cover tuition costs, lodging (primarily dormitory), board, and a modest travel stipend for each participant.

We organize the institute according to eight quality indicators of educational programs for students with severe, multiple disabilities or serious emotional disturbance:

1. Parent Involvement
2. Collaborative, Transdisciplinary Teaming
3. Inclusion
4. Positive Behavioral Supports
5. Functional Curriculum
6. Systematic Instruction
7. Community-based Instruction
8. Vocational and Transition Planning.

Detailed agendas for each day of the summer institute are available upon request. Resources used throughout the institute include (a) guest speakers such as teachers who were using components of the quality indicators in their classrooms, (b) videotapes that were produced throughout the nation on related topics, (c) small group and partner work such as developing IEP objectives based on a case study and suggesting management interventions, and (d) role playing or simulations (e.g., communication strategies and systematic instruction).

We require participants to complete several small projects after the conclusion of the institute and after returning to their job sites. These projects involved assessing and setting goals and objectives for various aspects of their programs during the following school year. They were also required to discuss strategies for, as well as subsequent success, in achieving their goals and objectives.

Each participant is given the opportunity to request follow-up services from us in the school year following their participation in the institute. This turned out to be one of the most valued aspects of the institute for both the participants who requested the service and for us. Not only were we able to visit schools and offer technical assistance or inservice presentations, but we saw first-hand the creativity and commitment of teachers serving students in remote communities.

Evaluation and Outcomes

Thus far, two institutes have been held and 58 professionals have been involved: 44 education teachers, 10 general educators, 3 speech and language pathologists, and 1 school social worker. Three types of evaluations are conducted and include (a) a course evaluation at the end of the institute, (b) a long-term evaluation of the impact of the institute at the end of the following school year, and (c) a supervisor evaluation of the impact of the institute on participant knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Course Evaluation. Institute participants complete an evaluation of the content, instruction, and learning activities at the end of each of the two institutes. The instrument used for the evaluation contains 18 statements to be rated on a Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). Space is provided for written comments.

Results of this survey are similar for both institutes, with the second institute ranked somewhat higher overall. For both institutes the mean responses to the questions ranged from 4.25 to 4.95, with 5 indicating the strongest favorable response. Positive written statements include comments about the knowledge and enthusiasm of the instructors, new ideas and information, guest speakers, and group activities. Suggestions for improvement include more direct observation, involvement of more general educators as participants, better classroom seating, and more student participation.

Long Term Evaluation. At the end of the school year following the first institute, a follow-up instrument was sent to institute participants asking them to indicate the overall impact the institute had on their teaching. Sixteen of 24 participants returned these follow-up evaluation forms (66%). The 18 questions on the instrument use a five-point Likert scale, similar in design to the initial course evaluation instrument.

The mean responses on the questions range from 3.9 to 5.0, with 5 indicating the strongest favorable response. The overall highest ranked item on the form referred to the value of the instructors' follow-up visits to the schools (5.0). The item "I used information from the summer institute in my job" was also rated high (4.8). The lowest rated item was "I shared information from the institute with parents" at 3.9. Narrative comments indicate that participants would like to have more ideas about modifying the attitudes of general classroom teachers and administrators. They feel that information on inclusion and positive behavioral supports was among the most valuable. A similar follow-up evaluation will be conducted with the participants of the second institute near the close of the 1994-1995 school year.

Supervisors' Evaluations. At the end of each institute, participants are asked to indicate the names and addresses of the supervisor most able to complete an evaluation of their teaching. Approximately five months after the completion of the institutes, an evaluation instrument is sent to the designated supervisors.

For the first institute, responses were received on 19 of the 24 participants, with 16 usable surveys returned (66% of the participants). Overall, supervisors rate participants' performance since completing the institute as good to excellent. Dimensions evaluated included attitudes and knowledge about students with severe disabilities, selecting appropriate goals, use of systematic learning techniques, etc. No participant ranked below "average" on any dimension. Supervisors' evaluations have been sent for the second institute but, as of this writing, only a few have returned.

Other Outcomes. After the first two institutes, 12 participants asked us to conduct inservice training in their districts to assist them in implementation of the quality indicators. Another eight participants asked us to provide individual consultation to assist them with specific problem-solving. Through this follow-up assistance, we have reached over 100 additional school personnel and parents. Long term follow-up evaluations of the institute indicated that the follow-up visits were among the most highly valued components of the institutes.

Informally we observed an additional, unanticipated outcome of the intense nature of the institutes and the two weeks of dormitory living. Many of these educators, from communities widely scattered over a huge geographical area, find they have much in common professionally and personally. Evening activities and excursions have led to friendships and informal support networks that survive well beyond the end of the institutes.

Summary

For two summers we have conducted institutes for rural teachers of students with serious emotional disturbance and severe, multiple disabilities. A total of 58 special education teachers, general education teachers, and related service providers have attended the 2-week institutes. The focus of the institutes is on inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes, involvement of families in decision-making, integration of specialized services into ongoing educational activities, and promotion of meaningful participation in community settings.

A key feature of the institutes is that each participant is given the opportunity to request individualized follow-up services of the project directors. This follow-up takes the form of either inservice training to an entire staff or individualized, on-site consultation to assist in implementing the concepts presented during the institute. A total of 20 follow-up visits have been requested by participants, and, through these visits, over 100 additional school personnel and parents have been impacted by this project.

Evaluations of the institutes indicate participants value the information and experiences provided. Follow-up evaluations conducted approximately 9 months after the institutes suggest that the experiences of the summer do influence the participants' performance with students and families during the following school year. Supervisors contacted approximately 5 months after the institute rate the first-year participants' skills and attitudes as good to excellent in all areas.

Rural teachers of students with severe, multiple disabilities and serious emotional disturbance face unique challenges due to the low incidence of these disabilities and the lack of informational and training resources in remote communities. The provision of summer institutes with individualized follow-up services is one method of assisting teachers in meeting these challenges.

Patricia A. Gawne, M.Ed
Keith Brothers, M.S.W., A.C.S.W.
Mecost-Osceola Intermediate School District
Big Rapids, Michigan

ADAPTIVE INCLUSION WITH SPECIAL NEEDS CHILDREN–

Inclusion That Can Work For Rural Schools

INTRODUCTION

Paradigms are a set of rules that define boundaries and explain what to do to be successful within those boundaries. "When a paradigm shifts, everyone goes back to zero. Just because you were big in the old paradigm, doesn't guarantee a thing in the new." (Burkin, 1993). When the Mecosta-Osceola Intermediate School District (M.O.I.S.D.) contemplated making a paradigm shift from what was known about how and where to educate special needs children, everyone indeed went back to zero. Many caring and concerned professionals, considered competent in their fields, (e.g. general classroom teacher, teacher consultant, resource room teacher, school social worker) were suddenly thrown into a whole new arena with all new expectations, new rules, and new boundaries.

Educationally, if categorical and self contained classrooms are part of the old paradigm, Inclusion can be said to be in the new paradigm. "An inclusive school is an educational institution in which all available resources are collaboratively utilized to meet the educational needs of all children who reside in its attendance area. Inclusive schools have strong site-based management and teacher teams who jointly plan, implement, and evaluate their educational programs. In an inclusive school, all students are placed in age appropriate classrooms. Learning is an interactive process, which relies on a variety of instructional formats to address individual needs and learning styles. Ancillary staff support is provided in the context of the core curriculum and classroom activities." (LeRoy, 1990)

How did the team get through all the change and turmoil? By first answering a very important question in the beginning. That question was, "What is the one thing you believe to be *impossible* today, but if it happened, would significantly impact your business?", (Burkin, 1993). Before undertaking the task of inclusion that question had to be honestly answered. In the past it was thought that educating a child with Down Syndrome required a center based program generally located outside his/her home school. It was thought impossible to educate these children within the general education classroom in their home school., but if we could we thought the lifelong implications would be worth the challenge.

This project would require the 'experts' to set themselves 'back to zero' in terms of their assumed working knowledge base. Moving from the old paradigm of center based programming to the new paradigm of inclusion became a very humbling experience. Wayne Burkin's statement that "'paradigm pioneers' are generally courageous and intuitive individuals" seemed to coincide with the rural ethic found in this community. Who could resist the opportunity to be a pioneer in the Land of Opportunity!

DEVELOPMENTAL HISTORY

Erin was identified as having Down Syndrome shortly after birth. She began receiving Special Education Services at three weeks of age, which included Speech Therapy and Physical Therapy services. At the age of three she began attending the Intermediate School District's center based Pre-Primary Impaired Program, located in rural central Michigan. In 1989, at age five Erin was recommended for placement in the local Developmental Kindergarten classroom. This half-day program was taught by a Special Education Teacher who had an educational aide and a student/teacher ratio of 13 to 1. The year was a success despite many persistent behavioral difficulties.

Erin began to receive School Social Work services provided by the local district while enrolled in Developmental Kindergarten. At this time affective testing found Erin's social development to be two years delayed for her age. Problematic behaviors included impulsive acts of spitting and hitting, temper tantrums, poor transition, oppositional behavior and peer alienation. She had no friends and had limited social skill development. She often would make poor choices in unstructured situations. She appeared to be extremely agitated by external auditory stimulation. Perhaps due to her impaired vision, her social space was approximately 24-30 inches. Erin would hit and lash out at any peer who violated this invisible 'social space'.

Erin has benefited from having the same School Social Worker during her elementary school years. School social work services have focused on teaching Erin appropriate social skills in the educational setting utilizing the Piaget child development model. Tools utilized by the school social worker have included individual counseling, small group counseling, classroom presentations, staff and teacher inservices and institutional advocacy for inclusive education. Specific strategies utilized with Erin have included role playing, discussions, arts and crafts, social skill games, community maps, flash cards, plays, books, skits, field trips, summer visits, parent and teacher conferences and a great deal of in class problem solving.

An Individualized Education Planning Committee (I.E.P.C.) was held in the Spring of 1990 to plan Erin's Kindergarten placement. Upon parental request Erin was placed in the regular education Kindergarten program at her home school. Erin's parents, both of whom are local professionals, were pioneers in the inclusion movement in this rural Michigan school district. The parents rejected the traditional placement of their daughter in a self-contained center based program and insisted that Erin be placed in an age appropriate classroom in her neighborhood school.

During her Kindergarten year the parents and educators learned many painful and bitter lessons about inclusion for special needs children. The new paradigm was not going to be easy to implement. Erin was placed in a Kindergarten with 25 children and one teacher. By the end of the second week Erin had been involved in over 30 altercations with her teacher and classmates. She was frequently resistant, oppositional, non-communicative, sad, tearful and confused. Inclusion was not working like anyone had envisioned. Problems persisted for over two months before an inclusion team was formed to address the educational needs of Erin and her classmates.

In the Spring of 1991 the Mecosta-Osceola Intermediate School District was awarded an inclusion grant through the Developmental Disabilities Institute operating by Wayne State University. . Two consultants from the Developmental Disabilities Institute were assigned to work within the district. Seven inclusion teams were formed from the five local school districts. The Wayne State University consultants were available four days per month the first year of the three year grant; two days per month the second year and once per month the third year. The Inclusion teams identified local special education students to pilot the inclusion experiment within their local districts.

Inclusion training was provided to the local teams by the inclusion consultants from Wayne State University. An extensive literature review, best practices methods, evaluation and inclusion models were presented to the local districts. Participants were given parameters in which to further develop each individual teams needs accordingly. The local teams found that there was not one right way for all when it came to the details of each individual student.

The initial Big Rapids Inclusion Team for Erin consisted of the parents, building principal, first grade teacher, kindergarten teacher, speech therapist, school social worker, psychologist and teacher consultant. A full time instructional aide would be added to the team at a later date. Before the next team meeting participants were to collect appropriate data needed to plan for first grade placement. The parents, teachers and other support staff were asked to provide a summary of Erin's current level of functioning.

Subsequent team meetings utilized the McGill Action Planning System, which proved invaluable at the time and still does five years later. "The McGill Action Planning System (MAPS) is a positive and affirming process that assists a team of adults and children to creatively dream and plan, producing results that will further the inclusion of individual children with labels into the activities, routines, and environments of their same age peers in their school community." (McGill, 1991). The process involves the whole team sitting in circle fashion answering the following questions: 1. What is the individual's history? 2. What is your dream for the individual? 3. What is your nightmare? 4. Who is the individual? 5. What are the individual's strengths, gifts, and abilities? 6. What are the individual's needs? 7. What would the individual's ideal day at school look like, and what must be done to make it happen? "The MAPS process provides a common vision and road map for all team members, which enables them to be supportive and effective in furthering the integration of learners with disabilities into regular schools." (LeRoy, et.al., 1991) With the MAPS completed the inclusion team began work on matching Erin's I.E.P.C. goals with the first grade curriculum and daily schedule. During this process the team realized that a full time aide would be an essential component for Erin and her classmates to have a successful year. At the recommendation of the district inclusion team and I.E.P.C. a classroom aide was hired.

Deliberate transition efforts were deployed by the teacher and parents to assist Erin into her new classroom. Visits by the classroom teacher to Erin's home and a visit by Erin to her new classroom prior to the start of school resulted in a smooth transition. From this positive experience visits to subsequent schools and classrooms by Erin and her support system have been regularly utilized with success.

The teacher consultant became the coordinator for the inclusion team. The coordinator met with the teacher and the aide once a week during the teachers gym time. The teacher consultant spent approximately one hour per week in the classroom working with the teacher and students. Additional support services included Speech and Language Therapy and Social Work services.

Weekly team meetings were held with the position of facilitator rotated between the members. As the year progressed the frequency of team meetings was reduced to one time per month. The team monitored Erin's educational progress and problem solved behavioral and interpersonal difficulties at these meetings.

In the Spring of 1991, the 'Transition Planning Phase' for second grade was begun. Having already been through the process in first grade, the transition meetings progressed smoothly. Even with all the advanced planning the second year did not go as smoothly as hopped for. Erin's first grade educational aide sadly moved out of the district causing a disruption in the delivery and continuity of services for this child. In addition, the initial team coordinator was transferred to another school within the district. By December of second grade the team was feeling as though they had taken one step forward and two steps back. Avoiding a near open rebellion by the building teachers, parents and Erin the inclusion team demobilized and intensified efforts and service delivery. The year was salvaged and a plan developed for third grade, drawing from the bruised mistakes of second grade.

At mid-year of third grade, the original team coordinator rejoined the team and was given time by the I.S.D. to coordinate and monitor the students educational progress. Bi-monthly team meetings were established for the inclusion team and weekly meetings with the teacher and the aide were held by the teacher consultant. Academic accommodations and curricular adaptations were made throughout the year by the team. The staff had learned that successful inclusion meant continuous adaptations and change by all involved for the new paradigm to work. By years end Erin was participating in a full continuum of educational services. IA marriage of resources between the local district and the I.S.D. was beginning to unfold in a new manner of collaboration and cooperation.

In the Spring of 1994 the decision to transfer Erin to another school in the district for fourth grade was made. The target placement school was in it's third year of a Special Education Inclusion effort that focused on the special education and regular education teachers team teaching. The school had eliminated its special education categorical and resource rooms, although some small group pull-out instruction was still available.

In an effort to provide for a smooth transition, the prospective fourth grade teacher and aide observed Erin within the third grade classroom and met with the current team in an open discussion format. A transition planning meeting was held at the new school site utilizing MAPS, Curriculum planning, daily schedule and behavioral concerns. Successful transition efforts for Erin into fourth grade included home visits by the teacher, school visits by the student and participation in summer school at her new school. All of these activities culminated in Erin's smoothest transition.

The careful planning by the inclusion team was evident in fourth grade as Erin made significant academic and social gains at her new school. Weekly team meetings were soon monthly meetings. The aide is now in the room only 2 hours per day. At a recent team meeting members agreed that their hard work of this inclusion project was a success. Recently a staff member stated that they came to Erin's classroom to talk to her and they couldn't find her. She was indistinguishable from her other classmates. Today Erin does not carry herself like a typical child with Down Syndrome. She lifts her head high when she walks, her speech is articulate, her dress, hairstyle and clothing are no different than her peers. She has learned to ride her two-wheel bike, is a talented artist and was recently invited to join two of her most popular classmates in the local talent show. Erin and her friends will speed rope jump to the latest hit music.

EVALUATION DATA

Monitoring academic, social-emotional and pre-vocational progress of a child with Down Syndrome can be difficult in a center based program let alone a child fully included within the regular education program. The traditional standardized testing instruments were less than acceptable when providing the specific diagnostic information needed to integrate curriculum within the classroom. Academic standardized tests included the Key Math, Woodcock Reading Mastery Test and Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals-R Test. A Criterion Reference style was found to be the most valid and effective assessment tool. The team utilized a combination of the Brigance and the local district classroom goals and objectives which seemed appropriate that year.

The districts core curriculum educational goals for K-12 students had to be modified for Erin. Members agreed that beneficial educational and life skills for Erin would remain to be different than that of her mainstreamed counterparts. Emphasis has been intentionally placed on pre-vocational and life skill adaptations of the essential curriculum. It is not considered educationally imperative that Erin will learn to diagram a sentence as much as it is important to learn to read a menu. These concerns were addressed through the use of Michigan's Special Education Outcomes Guides written for each of the special education disability areas. The Educably Mentally Impaired Outcome Guide was utilized for Erin's program needs. Each set of outcome guides have assessment data which allows appropriate monitoring and adjusting of program needs.

OVERVIEW OF EXPECTED OUTCOMES: EDUCABLE MENTAL IMPAIRMENT

Category 1.0: Academics
  1.1 Ability to understand and use spoken language to communicate effectively.
  1.2 Ability to interact with print material to comprehend and convey main ideas, draw conclusions, and make judgments.
  1.3 Ability to use math processes.

Category 2.0: Social Competence
  2.1 Ability to interact appropriately within the course of daily social, vocational, and community living.
  2.2 Ability to develop and maintain friendships and a support network.

Category 3.0: Community Integration
  3.1 Ability to travel efficiently within the community and beyond.
  3.2 Ability to access the community to meet personal and daily living needs.
  3.3 Ability to follow basic safety precautions and procedures to protect self and others.
  3.4 Ability to act as a responsible citizen.

Category 4.0: Personal Growth and Health and Fitness
  4.1 Ability to effectively advocate for self.
  4.2 Competency in personal decision making.
  4.3 Ability to manage personal health care and fitness.
  4.4 Ability to maintain appropriate hygiene, grooming, and appearance.
  4.5 Ability to participate in leisure and recreation activities.

Category 5.0: Vocational Integration
  5.1 Knowledge of realistic vocational options and a comprehensive plan for career development.
  5.2 Ability to organize self, complete tasks, and maintain job performance standards.

Category 6: Domestic Living Environment
  6.1 Knowledge of personal legal rights and responsibilities.
  6.2 Ability to maintain a personal living environment.
  6.3 Understanding of the personal responsibilities inherent in family, communal, or other living arrangements.

The Outcomes have proved invaluable for keeping the team on track with most of Erin's needs. The assessment is completed by the parents and the teaching staff. Strengths and weaknesses become quickly apparent and common goals established. For example, in First Grade after completing the assessment data the need for Erin to learn how to use a telephone and acquire the ability to dial 911 became apparent. The First Grade teacher felt this was a worthwhile goal for the entire class and promptly set time aside to integrate it into her curriculum. The guides have also served to remind the Resource Room Teacher of the broader concept base that is being addressed through this inclusion effort and how it differs from the traditional resource room student. The parents were given copies of expectations for an E.M.I. child along with specific goals and objectives that the team would be working towards at school but also ones that could be reinforced within the home.

Teacher comments were also kept from the beginning of the school year to the end. Inevitably the initial comments were always full of doubt and even fear concerning Erin's sometimes difficult behavior. "How will I teach Erin and the other 24 students in my classroom?" "What if she hits another student?" "I don't have any special education training, I won't know what to do." As the teacher discovered, Erin was first a child then a child with a disability. The aide helped fill in the gap of delivery of services within the classroom for all the children. She was there more for the other students than for Erin specifically. Staff also discovered that if Erin hit a child the same rules applied to her as the other children who might hit, (e.g. appropriate consequences). By the end of the school year the teacher comments always changed. "It has been incredible to see the growth Erin has made this year." "At the beginning of the year I had my doubts about Erin functioning in this classroom. I was afraid that she would take away too much time from the other students. What we found is that we all learned just as much from her as she did from us in terms of individual tolerance and need. It was an experience that I wouldn't want to have missed."

THE RECIPE

After visitations to other larger schools with a more varied and wide range of available services, it became evident that in our resource limited rural school district we would have to become very creative. The following is, first, the main structure we followed in each phase of the process as recommended by the Developmental Disabilities consultants and then a rural interpretation of how we made it work. Although each district comes with its own particular challenges, it is hoped that some parts may prove useful to other rural school districts.

INITIATION PHASE

Parent Requests/Program Invitation
IEPC Adjourned at Sending Building
Principal Contacted
Awareness Inservice
School Visitation
Team Identified

We prefer parents to initiate requesting the program as it insures better home to school coordination and effort. Not every child is automatically included within the general education classrooms. The IEPC must agree that it is in the best interest of the child to try inclusion and that there will be a benefit to the inclusive process. We do not allow indiscriminate 'dumping' of special needs children within the classroom. We found it essential to identify a 'Case Coordinator' to the Team. This person was responsible for keeping the team informed and monitoring progress. It is best if the same person stays with the child each year.

DATA COLLECTION PHASE

PARENT INPUT
-Parent Inventory
SENDING SCHOOL INPUT
-Survival Skills Checklist
-Student Skill Summary
-Existing Resources Provided
-Daily Schedule (Current)

HOME SCHOOL INPUT
-Survival Skills Checklist
-Daily Schedule (Anticipated)

This information gives us a picture of the 'whole' child from home to school. Utilization of the Michigan Mentally Impaired Outcomes Guides was used in this process as well as other informal inventories. Sometimes the most difficult part is getting the general education teacher to give us a copy of her/his daily schedule. However, each piece is essential in building a total program for the child and the teachers involved.

TRANSITION PLANNING PHASE

MAPS
Curriculum Matrix
Daily Schedule Developed

Staff Inservices
Peer Preparation
IEP Reconvened & Completed

MAPS is a simple but very powerful tool which we find essential to each Spring planning phase. Once you have used MAPS you will want to use it with every special needs child. All team members get a real sense of the whole child not just what they may see the next year. Whenever anyone is asked to shift paradigms there is fear involved. This phase provides real information not hearsay to the anticipated participants.

IMPLEMENTATION

SHORT TERM
-IEP-at-a-Glance
-Unique Needs
LONG-TERM
-Behavior Plan
-Reference Notebook
-Packet for Special Teachers
-Monitoring Sheets
-Home-School Communication

-Report Card
  Modifications/Rationales
-Field Trip Plans
-Building Accessibility/
  Environmental Modifications
-Inclusive Team Meeting Schedule

Keeping an open line of communication is very important in the success of a project such as this. We found the weekly contact with the classroom teacher by the case coordinator very useful in heading off problems and misinformation that may have resulted in the failure of the project. Anticipating and creating a behavior plan before the year started, answering questions regarding Report Cards and grading and maintaining monitoring sheets all helped tremendously in making it a successful year.

ACCOMMODATIONS

WITHIN CURRICULUM	ALTERNATE CURRICULUM
-Reinforcement	-Parallel
-Adaptation	-Alternative
	-Functional
	-Embedded
	-Partial Participation

We found with Erin that very few accommodations were needed early on in first and even in second grade. However, in third grade we provided specific remedial curriculum which supplemented her general education classroom instruction. Now in fourth grade we have provided more Parallel Curriculum accommodations which allow her to participate within the general education classroom but completing work at her ability level not necessarily a fourth grade level. Some years we have had the good fortune to have wonderful aides who would see the benefit of making material modifications for Erin but then use the same material with other 'needy' children within the classroom. If all else fails the teacher consultant was given time from her schedule to create appropriate learning tools.

CONCLUSION

There were times when even the parents wondered if we had done the right thing for Erin. This year we all just swell with pride regarding the progress Erin has made socially, emotionally and academically. Yes, it has been a very successful year, but only because we maintain the appropriate components throughout the school year. Many of us that have worked on this process admit that we have learned more than we taught. It has broadened our prospective of what is possible within educating children and allowed us a true sharing of responsibility to educate ALL children. We don't have all the answers and share some concerns about the next five years. Anticipated challenges will include integrating a strong vocational curriculum for Erin and managing the diversity that Middle School will challenge us with in two years. Has it been worthwhile? A resounding, YES, would be given from those of us who have participated in this project. Erin's language skills have improved beyond our initial expectations; her social skill development has also exceeded even our greatest hopes and her academic development has improved although not beyond our expectations. The team feels that all the effort has been more than worth it and appropriate. Erin will have a greater chance of successfully being integrated into her community as an adult now than if she had attended school at the segregated center based facility. If we expect the community to accept a diversity of adult people, we need to start early enough for the "ties to bind".

Ellen Feldmann & Carma Messerli
University of Missouri - Columbia
Center for Innovations in Special Education and
Access Office for Students with Disabilities
Columbia, Missouri

SUCCESSFUL TRANSITION: THE STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE

Introduction

Rural schools and communities have unique strengths that can not be found in larger populated areas, such as the "closeness" of the community, and the feeling that "we take care of our own." However, when it comes to students preparing to leave the school environment, rural communities may still offer a perplexing array of community services, postsecondary programs, and employment possibilities. Adequate planning and preparation through the school years, as well as coordination with postsecondary and adult service personnel, can stop the confusion and provide a smooth transition to the options after high school. Regardless of the population being served, a successful transition is dependent on the partnerships of all parties involved in a coordinated, well planned journey.

It should not be assumed that all students with disabilities will immediately enter the work force upon completion of secondary school. Many students require additional training and education. For some students with mild or moderate disabilities, postsecondary education might include attendance at a community college, technical school, or a four-year college (Boyer-Stephens, 1992). Those students who choose postsecondary institutions must be able to access and advocate for the accommodations they need in order to be successful. This paper will discuss the increase in the number of students with disabilities attending postsecondary education; the different expectations between secondary and postsecondary environments; report on the perspectives of selected postsecondary students from rural Missouri high schools; and offer suggestions for postsecondary success.

College Freshmen

The literature supports the fact that the number of students with disabilities entering postsecondary institutions is increasing. Almost one in eleven full-time freshmen (8.8 percent) enrolled in college in 1991 reported having a disability. This is a significant change from 1978 when the proportion was about 1 in 38 freshmen, or 2.6 percent (HEATH, September-October, 1991). The following chart reflects the increase of freshmen who report having disabilities:

Percentage of Full-Time Freshmen
Reporting Disabilities

1978	2.6
1985	7.4
1988	7.0
1991	8.8

Sight and learning disabilities are those most frequently identified by freshmen. The greatest growth in the percentage of students reporting a particular disability is in the category of learning disabilities. The following table indicates various disabilities reported by freshmen since 1985.

Disability	1985	1988	1991
Hearing	12.2%	11.6%	10.5%
Speech	4.0%	3.8%	5.4%
Orthopedic	12.1%	13.8%	13.5%
Learning disability	14.8%	15.3%	24.9%
Health related	16.2%	15.7%	14.6%
Partially sighted or blind	28.3%	31.7%	25.2%
Other	16.2%	18.5%	18.3%

(HEATH, 1991)

However, disability rates are not always accurate as they are often based on student self-reports (Boyer-Stephens, 1990). It should be noted that enrollment rates do not predict graduation or completion rates.

High School to Postsecondary Education

Most students with disabilities have been on the caseload of a special education teacher in elementary and/or secondary school. This special education teacher guides the educational program of the student and often views his or her responsibilities as ensuring that the student succeeds. This teacher acts as a liaison and a buffer between the student, other teachers, administrators, and sometimes parents and employers. This role creates a protected environment for students with disabilities. However, it can inhibit their ability to develop self-advocacy skills. In addition to their disability, these adolescents have a desire to be independent, "make it on their own" and "be like everyone else." These normal adolescent traits combined with a lack of self-advocacy skills produce an entering freshman likely to hide his or her disability as much as possible.

The transition from secondary to postsecondary education is difficult for students that have experienced frustrations and failures. Additionally, it is hard for those students who have not taken an active part in planning for their education and who are suddenly put in the position of needing to advocate for themselves in a postsecondary education setting. Students need to understand the differences between high school and college to better prepare them for the reality of the environments. The following diagram illustrates many of the immediate differences (Shaw, Brinckerhoff, Kistler, McGuire, 1991).

Differences Between High School and College Requirements

HIGH SCHOOL		COLLEGE
• 6 hours *per day*, 180 days. Total? 1080 hours!	Class Time	• 12 hours *per week*, 28 weeks. Total? 336 hours!
• Whatever it takes to do your homework! 1-2 hours per day?	Study Time	• Rule of thumb: 2 hours of study for 1 hour of class. 3-4 hours per day?
• Weekly; at the end of a chapter; frequent quizzes.	Tests	• 2-4 per semester; at the end of a 4-chapter unit; at 8:00 a.m. on the Monday *after* Homecoming!
• *Passing* grades guarantee you a seat!	Grades	• Satisfactory academic standing = C's or above!
• Often take attendance • May check your notebooks • Put info on the blackboard • Impart knowledge and facts	Teachers	• Rarely teach you the textbook • Often lecture non-stop • Require library research • Challenge you to think
• *Structured* defines it most of the time! • Limits are set: by parents, by teachers, or by other adults.	Freedom	• The single greatest problem most college students face! • Should I go to class? • Should I plan on 4, 5, 6, or 10 hours of sleep?

Source: Shaw, Brinckerhoff, Kistler, & McGuire, (1991).

Rather than fostering dependency, teachers in secondary schools (starting in junior high) need to focus students in high school on becoming more independent thinkers, and problem solvers, and responsible for determining and advocating for their own needs. Educators in secondary schools should implement programming which encourages independence. Instruction and counseling from educators, guidance counselors and parents should help students become more self-sufficient, independent thinkers and feel empowered to make their own decisions. As secondary educators reflect on their students' skills in these areas the following questions may be useful.

1. When was the last time your students brought their notebooks to class?
2. Are class notes, handouts, old tests and quizzes dated and properly inserted in their notebooks?
3. If you told your student that the next test would cover all material from March 1 to the present, would your student have any idea what would be on the test?
4. If you asked to see today's notes from biology, would your students start searching through their pockets looking for the *scrap* they took those notes on? Or would you hear, " I left it in my locker.", or "We don't take notes there?"
5. Are your students aware of assignment pads but feel they were meant to be used by others?
6. Do you feel you are straining your budget buying pens and pencils for those students who never have either?
7. Do you ever wonder what skills you are teaching your students which will enable them to be successful and independent, both during their school years and after they

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graduate?

8. When was the last time your students took responsibility for failure?

(adapted from Shaw, et. al., 1991)

Shaw et. al, and others have suggested the following strategies to help students learn necessary skills:

1. Planning for the transition from high school into postsecondary education must begin early.
2. The transitioning from junior high should include careful planning for courses of students with disabilities who choose not to receive services in high school. Students with disabilities who don not receive special education services can still obtain necessary accommodations under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act.
3. Students must actively participate in the decision making process of the IEP (including the transition component of the IEP) and of course in program selection.
4. Students must be taught to explain their disability in simple terms and how to request specific modifications and accommodations.
5. Students and parents should work together to identify strengths and weaknesses and to select appropriate postsecondary training or employment.
6. Course decisions must be made with a full understanding of the implications for transition, particularly with college-bound students.

(adapted from Shaw, et. al., 1991)

Student Perspectives

The Census Bureau (Department of Commerce) qualifies the use of the term "rural" as: "Living in the open countryside or in towns of a population of less than 2,500". The Rural Exchange (1994) defines an informal working definition: "If you think you are rural, you're rural." We surveyed students with disabilities coming from the following rural communities: Parma, MO - population 995; Linn, MO - population 1,148. These students were attending the University of Missouri and were asked a variety of questions regarding their high school career and preparation for college. Overall, there was a sense of confidence and accomplishment among the students surveyed. Each felt they were able to participate fully in campus life and that support and guidance from family members and educators enabled them to do so.

The students, however, in comparison to their peers without disabilities did not feel they received a great deal more services regarding their preparation for postsecondary institutions. Accommodations received were situation specific such as adapting a desk to be accessible, providing readers, and designating accessible parking spaces. Students report that assistance was given by a small handful of individuals within the school system, ranging in positions form principal to paraprofessionals. Support outside of the school system consisted largely of parents and grandparents who were quite active and supportive in their children's lives. Students did not perceive their vocational rehabilitation counselor as a source of support or guidance, but rather as a funding agent.

Once on campus students, as a general rule, did not immediately seek out the office of disability services. Usually they did not identify themselves to the office until a specific need arose. These needs included adaptive testing modifications, tutoring requests, and accessibility problems. Students found they used additional services as they became aware of them and as the severity of their disability progressed. Although the level of services varied with each student, all expressed satisfaction with services received.

It is also helpful to learn what suggestions students from University of Connecticut offer as solutions in preparing high school students with disabilities.

- Understand your disability and how you learn best *before* going to college.
- Develop strong study habits, especially time management skills.
- Have well developed basic skills in grammar and math.
- Build self-confidence by taking on more difficult tasks.
- Try to develop writing skills for taking essay tests.
- Develop self-advocacy skills in order to ask professors for necessary accommodations.
- Seek help as soon as admitted to college.
- Be prepared to study hard and set realistic goals.

(Shaw, et. al, 1991)

Postsecondary Success

The challenges facing college students with disabilities include the transitional issues encountered by the general student population plus specific disability-related issues. These additional challenges pose the need for additional abilities, such as those previously mentioned — self-advocacy, initiation, and time management. Once developed, students will use their acquired skills for a variety of purposes. Examples include:

- **Self Report of Disability**
  Taking the initiative to locate the office of disability support services and identifying oneself as a student with a disability is a vital first step in the accommodation process. This may be particularly difficult for students from rural areas where it was never necessary to identify themselves as having a disability because it was common knowledge. There is usually close communication in a small community such that a child enters the school system with friends and educators already aware of their disability needs, in contrast to a postsecondary setting where students may easily remain anonymous until they identify themselves.
- **Articulating Accommodation Needs**
  Once the initial step is taken it must be followed by an articulate, specific description of accommodation needs. In many instances, an educator and/or parental figure has done this for the student throughout high school and this will be a new experience that can seem quite intimidating without the appropriate knowledge and communication skills.
- **Coordinating Auxiliary Assistance**
  Frequently individuals are hired to provide auxiliary assistance (i.e., personal care

attendants, interpreters, readers) and their schedules must be coordinated by the student with a disability. This places the student in an "employer" role and requires a great deal of time management, diplomacy, and organization.

- **Making Living Arrangements**
  Adjustment to living away from home for the first time is difficult for every student. For students with disabilities from rural communities it is even more difficult. The adjustment is much greater because the size of the campus and surrounding community is often overwhelming. There are many more choices, procedures, and individuals to deal with. Students will have to advocate and negotiate housing, transportation, and financial matters. Self-advocacy and self-confidence are essential in mastering the complexity of postsecondary settings.

Summary

As increasing numbers of students with disabilities express their interest in postsecondary education, secondary school personnel must become more knowledgeable of support services in postsecondary institutions, and work together with parents to move students along from learned helplessness to independence and empowerment. Students should be encouraged to visit and talk with support personnel on the campuses where they attend classes. Usually the Students Affairs office can provide the name(s) of staff assigned to work with students who have disabilities. With the passage of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) transition planning has effectively begun to include preparing students with disabilities for postsecondary education or for adult life.

CISE is a technical assistance and resource center funded by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. This new Center is a merge between two state projects each with long histories, the Special Education Dissemination Center and Missouri LINC. The Center continues to provide resources and professional development activities consisting of technical assistance to requesting school districts, conducting conferences and inservice presentations, developing free and low-cost materials, disseminating loan package materials, and answering hotline questions. The topics for these activities include inclusion, vocational and transition assessment, functional curriculum, interagency collaboration, and other topics related to special education. Missouri LINC over the past few years, has focused on providing information to educators about transition and its implementation into school district programs.

The Access Office provides postsecondary support services for students with disabilities. These services are designed to ensure equal educational opportunities in all areas of campus life. Services encompass areas such as adaptive exam accommodations, transportation, accessibility, and auxiliary aids. Access Office staff work individually with each student providing case by case consideration of accommodation needs as required by the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). As postsecondary institutions' legal responsibilities are strengthened through implementation of ADA, the role of disabled student services is strengthened as well.

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Jefferey Beckstrom, Teacher
Wayne E. McKay, Sp. Ed. Director
James A. Mishler, Supervisor
Mecosta-Osceola Intermediate School District
PO Box 1137, 15760 190th Ave.
Big Rapids, Michigan 49307

TEAM ORIENTED MENTORING TO PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND STAFF RETENTION

Introduction

This paper is an outline of a "modified" mentoring program. This program, affectionately titled ***"The Tormentor Program"***, attempts to take advantage of the strengths inherent in the Eagle Village program and, at the same time, adhere to the basic principles of mentoring.

Staff Philosophy

During a routine review of the evaluation and professional development sequences the staff adopted as one of its guiding principles the **"Teacher helping Teacher"** philosophy. There was a recognition that we have much to offer to one another in the way of professional assistance. An obligation to share was recognized and accepted by the professional staff. The staff also recognized that it had limited resources and that work loads should be distributed over as many people as possible to lighten the burden.

Program Strengths & Weaknesses

To fully understand the proposed program a brief outline of program strengths and weaknesses is called for. It is necessary to understand both the strengths and the weaknesses of the Eagle Village program because it is from this understanding that a foundation is built for the Mentoring program.

Weaknesses

Involved Staff: Current staff members are already involved in numerous other projects making it difficult to commit extended amounts of time to yet another program.

Limited Personnel: A small staff does not generate a pool of perspective mentors large enough to prevent overburdening one or two staff members.

Limited Financial Resources: Limited monies prevents the implementation of reward schemes for mentor teachers other rewards will have to be sought.

Strengths

Highly Trained Staff: All staff members have participated in numerous training programs which have been integrated and fully implemented into the curriculum.

Diverse Interests: Each staff member has developed an area of expertise based upon their personal interest which can impact all other staff members.

Well Defined Curriculum: The curriculum is organized in such a manner that new staff can accept it as is or adapt it as they see the need. In either event the goals of the program are not compromised.

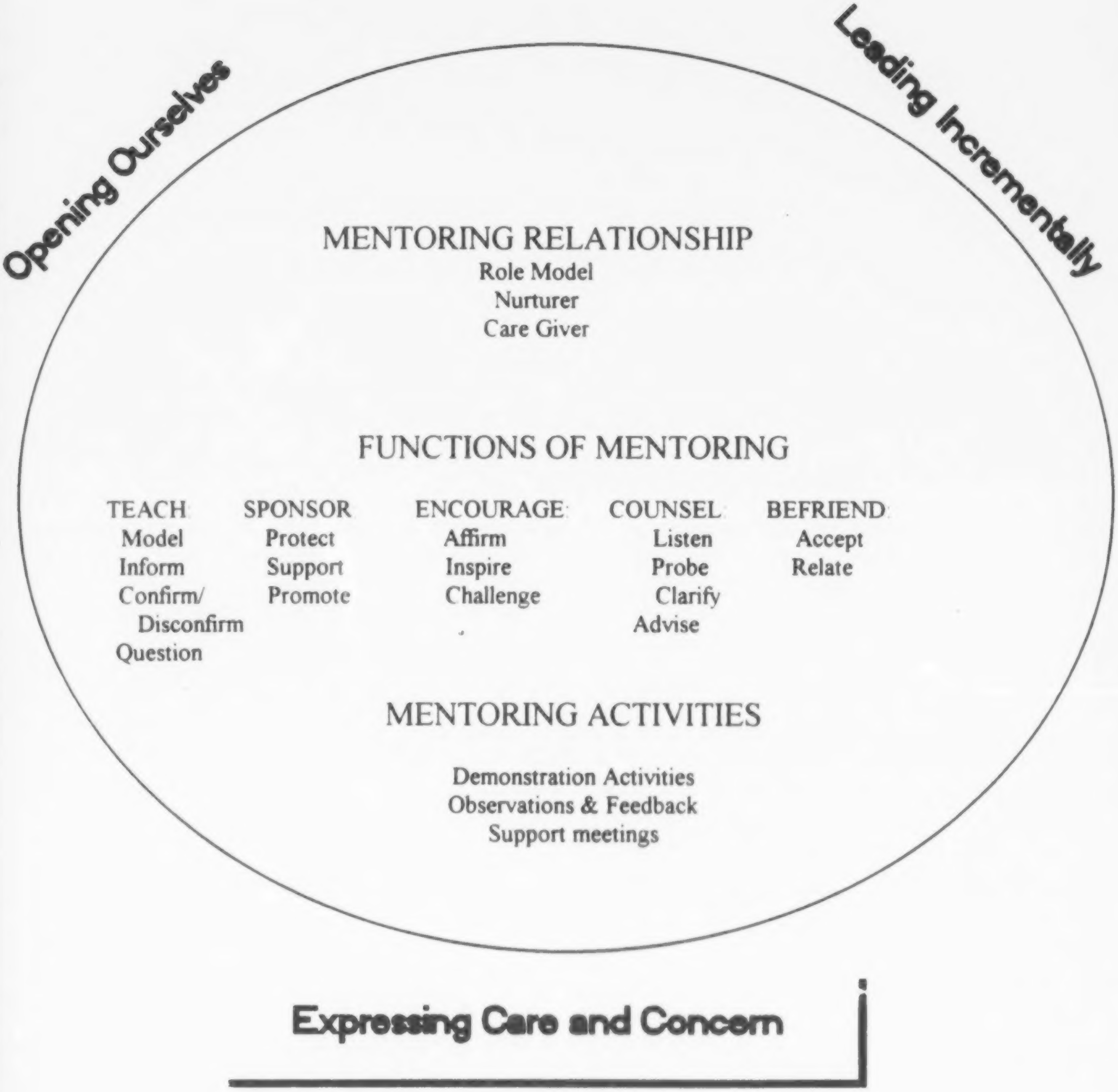
Shared Program Goals: Commitment to Mentoring as one approach to helping new staff. This commitment is shared by all staff at all levels.

Program Design: The daily schedule along with several other features of the daily routine are conducive to allowing a mentoring relationship to flourish.

An Operating Definition of Mentoring

The operating model/definition that will be employed by our program will be that contained in Figure 1. However, it cannot be employed in its purest form because of program limitations. In the case of our small building it seems as though a mentoring program need not be a formal one. However, it is the smallness of the program that calls for more formality. Our personnel resources are limited and are already stressed in many different directions. Therefore, a formal conceptualization that distributes the work load evenly while accomplishing the primary goal is called for. The conceptualization put forth in Figure 1 by Anderson and Shannon holds the necessary keys to determine the appropriate direction.

MENTORING MODEL
Figure I


Opening Ourselves
Leading Incrementally
Expressing Care and Concern

MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

Role Model
Nurturer
Care Giver

FUNCTIONS OF MENTORING

TEACH	SPONSOR	ENCOURAGE	COUNSEL	BEFRIEND
Model	Protect	Affirm	Listen	Accept
Inform	Support	Inspire	Probe	Relate
Confirm/ Disconfirm	Promote	Challenge	Clarify	
Question			Advise	

MENTORING ACTIVITIES

Demonstration Activities
Observations & Feedback
Support meetings

The Mentoring Model proposed in Fig. 1 calls for three basic dispositions: Opening Ourselves, Leading Incrementally, and expressing Care and Concern. These dispositions can further be viewed as being on a continuum. While, in an ideal sense, some people are capable of manifesting all of the characteristics listed in Figure 1 all of the time. It is more reasonable to assume that all people can manifest some of the characteristics listed most of the time. Taking advantage of those characteristics that each individual is capable of giving at any one time should be a hallmark of our program. In this view it is essential that everyone in the program share the same conceptual understanding of mentoring because they must be prepared to enter into the process at anytime contributing whatever they have to give at that time.

All teaching staff will be called upon to enter into a mentoring relationship with new staff staff will attempt to manifest the 3 dispositions as they relate to the needs of the new teacher. In addition staff will attempt to work cooperatively with the new teacher engaging in the Functions and Activities listed in Figure 1 as they see their appropriateness.

TEAM ORIENTED MONITORING APPROACH FOR NEW STAFF

The Goal

The primary goal of the ***"Tormentor"*** program is to fully integrate new staff into the Eagle Village delivery system as an effective team member. Further, the approach has as its primary goals the initial professional development of new staff leading to the granting of tenure and to provide a basis for future professional growth. Since the ***"Tormentor"*** is a formative program Evaluation will not solely be based on ***"Tormentor".*** However, the components of "Tormentor" will provide a foundation upon which the evaluation process begins.

The Plan

Initially, all staff will take part in the induction process of a new staff person. This will be accomplished by listing all of those critical or 'must know' items and assigning one or more staff persons to be responsible for their delivery or to act as a "Primary Resource Person". Items on the list will be divided into three phases with each phase being defined by the 'need to know' priority. The phases are as follows:

PHASE I--1st few days/weeks

Designed to get the new teacher started initial activities aims at smoothing the beginning days of work and integrating the new person into the system.

PHASE II--1st 2-6 months

Begins to develop more depth and understanding of program and deliver.

PHASE III--on going through out first two years

Develops a greater understanding of program elements which enhance overall teaching and personal professional development.

As the process begins the new staff person will start a personal growth portfolio. Initially, the portfolio will contain the mechanical checklists containing the list of primary resource persons who can answer their questions. When they acquire needed information they will record its acquisition in their portfolio. Eventually, their portfolios will contain personal professional growth plans worked out with the supervisor and their mentor which will be of a long term nature.

The first two phases are designed not only to smooth the entry into the system but also to bring the new staff into contact with as many veteran staff as is possible. Making these initial contacts insures that the new staff will get to interact with all staff and begin the process of developing a series of relationships.

In Phase III the new teacher begins the task of acquiring and fine tuning the many new skills required in the program. The new teacher begins the process of selecting one staff member who will act as a mentor and a coach. The new teacher will continue to interact with veteran staff who are serving as the Primary Resource Person for a particular subject area. It is the responsibility of the Primary Resource Person to develop and maintain a set of materials on their subject area that can be shared by all and to act as an in-house trainer for that subject.

PERSONAL GROWTH PORTFOLIO CHECKLIST

PHASE I	CONTACT PERSON	SIGNATURE/DATE
1. Tour of School- finding needed material		
2. Tour of Village		
3. Building Procedures		
4. Class Schedules		
5. Discipline		
6. Corporal Punishment		
7. Daily Ratings		
8. Program Philosophy		
9. Curriculum Design- Course Outlines		

PHASE II	CONTACT PERSON	SIGNATURE/DATE
1. How Village Runs/ Meet Village Staff		
2. Relationship With Village		
3. IEPC Process		
4. Updating And Report Cards		
5. Pre/Post Test Issues		
6. Sub Procedures		
7. Incident Reports How/When		
8. How To Use Your Aid		
9. Staff Meetings		
10. Student Relationships		
11. Dress Issues		
12. Selecting A Primary Mentor		

PHASE III	CONTACT PERSON	SIGNATURE/DATE
1. Cooperative Learning		
2. PSI/DM		
3. Life Choices		
4. Logical Thinking		
5. Effective Teaching Issues		
6. Evaluation Procedures		
7. Peer Coaching		
8. Teaching Techniques		
9. Establishing Area of Expertise		

This project has attempted to address a need. Further, while not elaborating, it has done so within a philosophical framework which compliments the current program. Many program features, such as Personal Growth Portfolios and Peer Coaching, are already integral parts of the program. This plan/project appears to be a logical extension to those components already in use.

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Beverly J. Irby & Genevieve Brown
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, TX
Kay S. Bull & Diane Montgomery
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK

CAREER PATHS, CAREER ASPIRATIONS, NETWORKING, AND MENTORING AMONG SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

Fostering the development of leadership in special education is the key to providing creative solutions to special education programming in the future. The men and women who choose to enter special education administration have particular challenges to face, with unique school and community roles to play. For professionals serving in rural areas, the experiences for career development to meet the future challenges may be very different. Very little is known about the career paths and aspirations of rural special education administrators.

The necessary role of a mentor to facilitate entrance into the professional field is well documented in the literature. A mentor informs initiates of the political and social knowledge to effective leadership. The availability and the role of a mentor may be substantially affected by the size and nature of the school district. What have special education administrators done to use, seek or become a mentor?

Another strategy integral to successful leadership is networking. The opportunity to learn with others and develop collaborative relationships enriches the quality of work and its environment. What is the nature of the formal or informal network system for rural special education administrators? This study was a beginning attempt to explore the issues associated with career development in special education administration.

The purpose of this pilot study was twofold. The primary purpose was to extend the research base regarding career enhancement in the field of public school administration, with particular attention to special educators in rural and small schools. Second, the pilot study was used to develop and field test a survey instrument which would be valid in determining the perceptions and experiences of special education administrators in rural and small school districts. Four areas related to career advancement were examined: networking, mentoring, career paths, and career aspirations.

Method

Procedure and Subjects

The subjects for this pilot study were 15 special education administrators in small or rural school districts from an east Texas regional educational service center area. For this investigation rural was defined as a school district with an enrollment of less than 2500 students (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1990) and small was defined as a school district with an enrollment of between 2500 and 3500 students.

A pilot survey instrument was administered and completed at a monthly special education administrator meeting. All special education administrators in attendance completed the survey. The surveys of all respondents who indicated that they were employed in a rural or small school district were included in this pilot study.

Data in this pilot study were initially analyzed using descriptive statistics on each of the survey instrument question clusters of demographics, networking, mentoring, career path, and career aspiration.

Instrument

The 31 item questionnaire was piloted with the sample group and was divided into five sections. The first section was comprised of 9 items designed to obtain biographic, demographic, and basic career experience data from the subjects. The second section included 6 items designed to identify subjects' perceptions and experiences regarding networking. The third section contained 9 items centered on subjects' views and experiences with mentoring. A fourth section on career paths included 3 items that dealt with the subjects' career paths and barriers to the special education administrative position. A final section was composed of 4 items that included the subjects' responses to administrative career aspirations both in and out of special education.

A copy of the pilot survey instrument is displayed in Figure 1. Respondents were instructed to review each item and respond with either a scale response, a yes - no response, or an open-ended written response. Respondents took no more than 15 minutes to complete this pilot instrument.

Findings

Sample

The sample for this pilot study was selected based upon the following criteria:

a. subjects had to be currently serving as a special education director, coordinator, or supervisor.
b. subjects had to serve in this position in a rural or small school district.

c. subjects had to be participating in the monthly meeting of the special education administrators from one Texas regional educational service center.

The gender of the sample of the pilot group of special education administrators was 27% male and 73% female. Seventy-three percent were special education directors and 27% were special education supervisors. Fifty-three percent of the administrators had held a special education administrative position between 1 and 10 years, while 47% had held positions over 11 years. Seventy-three percent of the subjects taught more than 10 years prior to their first administrative appointment.

Networking

Eighty percent of the subjects rated networking from important to very important. Thirteen percent of the subjects rated networking from somewhat important to not important. Seven percent had no opinion. Ninety-three percent of the subjects indicated that they are in a networking group.

The subjects' reported their primary interests in joining a networking group were to gain skills or information necessary to complete the job or to obtain advice regarding job tasks. The benefits listed by the subjects for being a member of a networking group were as follows: helps me stay enthusiastic, gives support, provides information, broadens perspectives, preparation for the future, and allows time for visiting. The subjects defined networking in line with what they determined to be their interests for joining a group or with the benefits listed. Definitions for networking given were as follows: sharing information, getting advice, communicating with those in the same field, or solving problems. No subjects mentioned career advancement in conjunction with networking.

Mentoring

A large percentage (80%) of the subjects rated mentoring from important to very important. Seven percent of the subjects rated networking as not important. Thirteen percent had no opinion. Sixty-seven percent of the subjects indicated that they had been mentored. Of those indicating they had been mentored, 70% had male mentors and 50% had female mentors (some indicated as 50% supervisors or 50% colleagues; only seven percent indicated that the mentor was either a friend or a professor).

The subjects indicated that the mentors worked with them in the following ways:

- instructed and supported, encouraged, gave guidance and direction, listened, questioned, and offered suggestions.

They defined mentoring as encouraging and supporting a person in one's own field, a person who has more experience in the field supporting one with less experience, giving guidance and encouragement, coaching, helping others to gain knowledge, giving others processes to help perform the job, and teaching others about people. Forty-seven percent of the subjects indicated that they had been mentors. They reported that they mentored through: sharing experiences, reminding, listening, suggesting, guiding, encouraging, questioning, problem solving, supporting, and providing information. None indicated mentoring activities commonly associated with helping others obtain another position.

They indicated that they would look for the following qualities in a mentor:

- professional attitude
- understanding
- respect
- open-minded
- supportive
- knowledgeable
- coaching skills
- human relations skills
- non-judgmental
- experience
- wisdom
- organized
- listener
- information provider
- flexible
- common sense
- caring
- helper

No subject mentioned that they would expect the mentor to offer information on available positions, counseled them regarding career preparation or advancement, or sponsor them for alternative administrative positions.

Career Path

In responding to the question, "When did you first aspire to be a special education administrator?", 20% gave dates, such as 1983 or 8 years after I began teaching. Thirteen percent indicated a definite desire to move into a special education administrative position for a greater challenge. However, sixty percent of the subjects indicated that they never aspired to be a special education administrator or that it was just by chance that they obtained the position.

Fifty-three percent of the subjects perceived there to be no barriers to their obtaining an administrative position in special education. Thirteen percent expressed a lack of confidence as a barrier to obtaining an administrative position, while 7% indicated a lack of experience. Twenty percent of the subjects indicated that availability of positions was a barrier.

Career Aspirations

Only 20% of the subjects indicated a desire for further administrative aspirations. The present pilot investigation did not ask respondents to identify why they did not have further administrative aspirations. Although only 2 respondents aspired to move up in their careers, 47% of the total respondents indicated that their current special education administrative position would allow them access to other administrative positions. the greatest barriers indicated by the subjects in their efforts to move ahead in an administrative career path were lack of regard for special education among regular education (33%) and a general lack of expertise in general education (47%).

Discussion

The evidence presented by this pilot investigation suggests that career advancement among special education administrators in rural school districts is not a major priority. Although the results can not be generalized to the larger group of rural special education administrators; initial evidence from this sample reveals that the group is relatively closed and stable in their positions. They do not view networking as important in career advancement, rather they view networking as a vehicle for information and support within the profession. Neither do they perceive mentoring as a career enhancement tool. Mentors were reported to be information providers or supporters only. Additionally, they did not admit to having a career plan leading to the special education administration position. They referred to their attainment of the position more as happenstance. They did not aspire to other administrative positions.

Further Research Recommendations

The investigators accomplished the purposes of this research and propose the following changes for a comprehensive study which would be more generalizable to the population of special education administrators:

a. Refine the survey to a more discriminating instrument with quantifiable responses.
b. Leave space on the survey to answer in written form to encourage reflection and more viable qualitative data.
c. Alter the demographic variables to include a question about the years of teaching prior to first special education administrative position.
d. Alter the career path variable to obtain more specific data about history of career.
e. Modify the career aspiration variable to include an explanation of why the administrator does not desire to move into other administrative positions.
f. Conduct a survey of a random sample of 400 rural special education administrators (8 per state) on a national scale.
g. Explore other related variables, such as role models for the rural or small school special education administrators.

Steve Russell, Ed.D.
Joyce Meikamp, Ed.D.
West Virginia Graduate College
Institute, West Virginia

Cultural Diversity Among Gifted Students and Their Teachers in Rural West Virginia

By the end of this century, minority students will fill two of every five classroom seats. Yet with these increasing numbers, minority students are underrepresented in the ranks of gifted education programs. Economically disadvantaged and minority students, having access to fewer advanced educational opportunities, often go unnoticed (Ross, 1993). Given the nation's changing demographics, rural school systems can ill afford ignoring cultural diversity among the ranks of both students and educators.

Culturally different children, including minority and economically disadvantaged students are particularly neglected in programs for gifted (Ross, 1993). According to the 1988 National Education Longitudinal Study, 8.8% of all eighth grade public school students participated in gifted and talented programs. However, disproportionate representation existed between racial and ethnic groups. For example, while 17.6% of Asian and 9.0 % of white, non-Hispanic students participated, only 7.9 percent of black, 6.7% of Hispanic, and 2.1% of native American students were involved in gifted education.

Ignorance and misunderstanding about giftedness and cultural diversity contribute to the dilemma of underrepresentation of minorities. Typically programs for disadvantaged and minority children focus on solving the problems they bring to school, rather than empowering them to develop their strengths (Ross, 1993).

Ideally teachers must be free of prejudice or stereotypes in order to accept the child as a person who is potentially capable of high achievement (Baldwin, 1987). Effective teachers of minority students understand and respect cultural diversity and have a high degree of tolerance for behavioral characteristics which do not fit usual conceptions of giftedness.

The race and background of America's teachers influence children's views of power and authority. Haberman (1989) stated, "These messages influence children's attitudes toward school, their academic accomplishments, and their views of their own and others' intrinsic worth. The views they form in school about justice and fairness also influence their future citizenship."

While culturally diverse students are increasing in America's classrooms, fewer culturally diverse individuals are entering the teaching profession. Sadly, Baldwin (1987) reported only 10% of teachers were members of minority groups, compared to 20% of school aged children. While in the past as much as 18% of the U.S. teaching force was made up of African American teachers, it is estimated that the proportion will soon fall to less than 5% (Haberman, 1989). Even more alarming, while universities confer only 100,00 new bachelor's degrees a year on minority students, fewer than 10% of these are in education.

1976, the state Department of Education of West Virginia, put into effect a mandate to provide gifted students the same rights to a free and appropriate education, with the same procedural safeguards as were given the handicapped. Since that time, in all three institutions of the state with training programs for certification in gifted education, only three black teachers have been certified to teach the gifted as opposed to approximately 700 caucasion teachers. This represents, at the very least, a severe lack of positive role models for the black gifted students in West Virginia.

Do these comparisons still hold true in West Virginia, a totally rural state? Moreover, what is the ethnic diversity of both rural gifted education teachers and students? The present investigation examined the demographic makeup of students and teachers throughout rural West Virginia gifted education programs.

Procedure

The superintendents of West Virginia's 55 counties were asked to provide names and school addresses of their gifted staff. As a result, 200 teachers of gifted students were mailed a survey and asked to provide information relative to the ethnicity of themselves and their students. Other data were provided by the West Virginia Department of Education and the West Virginia Equal Opportunity Employment Commission.

Results

West Virginia employs a single method of identifying gifted students: an

IQ score of 130 or above. Given the normal curve, this represents 2% of the population. When looking at the distribution of the student population statewide, the 2% figure should hold true across ethnic backgrounds. However, Table 1 indicates that only two thirds of one percent of black students have been identified in West Virginia's public schools. In terms of raw data, Table 2 shows that only 37 black students, of the state's 12,503 black students have been identified. Given the 2% ratio, a minimum 250 black students should have been identified but were overlooked! Table 3 speaks to the general staff who provide direct services within the identification procedure. While blacks represent between 2.0 and 2.6% of the counselors, supervisors, principals and classroom teachers, there are no black school psychologists (those responsible for administering and interpreting IQ tests for all students).

Conclusions

There are no perfect solutions to the problem of under identification of black children in gifted programs. Various ways to approach the problem have included culture-fair tests, examiner ethnicity, non-traditional measures of intelligence and proportional representation. The research effect of these has not been conclusive, however.

One approach receiving little attention, concerns recruitment through community, teacher, and parent awareness program (Kitano & Kirby,1986). Coordinators of gifted programs can train community liaison persons to recognize referral characteristics and inform parents of available programs. They can develop and distribute brochures, encourage preschool screening clinics in community service centers as well as mount radio, television and newspaper campaigns. Inservice personnel for all public school personnel regarding characteristics can also be provided. Training more African-American teachers of gifted can be a vital way to affect community awareness.

Given the nation's changing demographics, it can no longer afford to ignore diversity. More minority leaders are needed to serve as role models (Baldwin, 1987). It is even more apparent today that in the future we shall have to depend upon creatively gifted members of disadvantaged and minority cultures for most of our creatitive achievements (Torrance, 1969).

TABLE 1

Certified Teachers of Gifted and Identified Gifted Students in the state of West Virginia. Savage/Russell (1992)

	Male	**Female**	**White**	**Black**	**Asian**	**Hisp.**	**Indian**
Teacher	14	181	193	1	0	0	2
Percent	10%	90%	.985%	.005%	0%	0%	.01%
Student	2959	2717	5506	37	118	8	7
Percent	52%	48%	.9689%	.0067%	.0215%	.0014%	.0012%

TABLE 2

Total ethnic background of students. (West Virginia State Department of Education, 1991)

Race	Total	Percent	Percent Identified	#Identified Projected # Identified
White	253,603	.945%	.021	5236/5072
Black	12,503	.038%	.003	37/250
Asian	1,202	.003%	.098	118/24
Hispanic	568	.014%	.004	8/11
Indian	145	.0005%	.048	7/3

* While African-American Students represent nearly 4% (.038) of West Virginia's general student population, they represent less than 7/10 of 1% (.0068) of all identified gifted students.

TABLE 3

Staffing figures for public education in the state of West Virginia. (Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, 1991)

	Male	Female	White	Black	Asian	Hisp.	Indian
School Psych.	37	55	90	0	1	1	0
Percent	40%	59%	98%	0%	1%	1%	0%
Guidance Counselor	289	609	873	24	1	0	0
Percent	32%	68%	97%	.026%	.004%	0%	0%
Consultant/ Supervisor	38	78	114	2	0	0	0
Percent	32%	68%	98%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Principals	1199	514	1669	43	0	1	0
Percent	70%	30%	.974%	.025%	0%	.0005%	0%
Classroom Teachers	6625	8991	15221	353	12	24	6
Percent	42%	58%	.974%	.022%	.0007%	.0014%	.0003%

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June M. Schaefer, Ph.D.
Marquette-Alger ISD
Marquette, Michigan

John Lindholm
Delta-Schoolcraft ISD
Escanaba, Michigan

Barbara LeRoy, Ph.D.
Developmental Disabilities Institute
Wayne State University
Detroit, Michigan

"HARNESSING THE RESOURCES THAT ABOUND WITHIN RURAL SCHOOLS TO CREATE SYSTEMS CHANGE FOR ALL KIDS"

Background Information/State Level Initiative

During the 1970's students with varying degrees of disabilities were attending some public schools in the Upper Peninsula of Michigan - but the momentum within the state and much of the country was to build "separate" schools for these students. Parents and educators held forums within the Marquette-Alger Intermediate School District (MAISD) during this time as to whether funds should be directed to building a new site or to renovate existing public school sites for increased accessibility. Discussion was heated, but the majority of persons supported the integration of special education programs within existing school sites - even for children with the most severe disabilities. One "segregated" rental site was retained to satisfy the dissenters. Thus, the era of "least restrictive environment" began in this northern section of Michigan's Upper Peninsula.

Even with this bold leap of integration and mainstreaming within the public school and university setting (for young adults), programs continued to be centralized. Students traveled long distances on buses (up to 2 to 2 1/2 hours one way) to attend MAISD operated programs within the Marquette area. Local districts did not regard these students as "their" students - they "belonged" to the MAISD. Many students "graduated" from MAISD programs having never set foot in the halls of their local school district or having any experiences with the staff and students within their local school district.

On January 10, 1984, the State Board of Education in Michigan passed a policy entitled "The Educational Assignment of Handicapped Children and Youth to Separate Facilities: A Policy Regarding Least Restrictive Environment". With this policy came momentum for the districts in the Upper Peninsula to review additional options for students with disabilities in regular education. Many less restrictive options were emerging, but the Administrative Rules for Special Education in Michigan proved to be inhibiting in many instances - creating barriers regarding flexibility and funding options. A glimmer of hope surfaced in October, 1989, when the Office of Special Education Services, Michigan Department of Education, in cooperation with the Developmental Disabilities Institute at Wayne State University, began implementation of a five-year OSERS - sponsored systems change project to facilitate inclusive education. The State Board of Education in Michigan followed suit with an official statement in 1990 (later confirmed in 1992) which defined inclusive education as follows:

> The provision of educational services for students with disabilities, in schools where non-handicapped peers attend, in age-appropriate **general education classes under the direct supervision of general education teachers, with special education support and assistance as determined appropriate through the individualized educational planning committee (IEPC).**

The Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative provided the framework within which the MAISD could revisit the basic special educational operational questions such as centralization, LRE options to include inclusion, transportation, funding and staff development. All of these factors focused on a major "systems change" for the twelve local school districts within MAISD which would also subsequently lead to widespread changes in other districts within the Upper Peninsula. During the first year of the Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative (1990-91) four ISD's and three local school districts in the state participated. MAISD was the only ISD where all local constituent districts agreed to participate for overall regional "systems change".

Being accepted as an Implementation Site by the Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative provided access to additional resources for the MAISD through technical assistance, research and leadership in the staff development process. Early on in the process, an agreement was formulated so that MAISD's goals were met in regard to long-term systems change. The MAISD administration wanted to develop a high level of consulting skills within their staff so that they could be readily available to support educators and parents within the local school districts on LRE implementation. It was critical that the staff from the State Initiative serve as technical assistants to the MAISD - so that they were not perceived as developing awareness levels of expertise only - and then not being available to local teachers/parents after the project was completed. MAISD staff were placed in leadership roles to provide technical assistance within respective districts they served - as a result, this has remained to be the "backbone" of MAISD's systems change efforts.

An Example of an ISD Systems Change Project

The MAISD encompasses a two county area of 2, 786 square miles with a K-12 population of approximately 15,000 students. The annual special education count represents approximately 10 percent of this population or 1500 students. Twelve school districts make up the rural constituency of this ISD. The districts have combined into four cooperatives (Co-ops) to better serve low incidence needs.

"Systems change" within the framework of the Michigan Inclusion Imitative required a major commitment of the twelve local district superintendents to consider the following basic principles:

- decentralized special education operations for persons with moderate to severe impairments from MAISD to local school districts;
- discontinuation of MAISD special education transportation services; integration of these students within the local district transportation systems;
- transition of MAISD's role from operations to one of extensive leadership in staff development reflected through development of regional expertise in each Co-op with MAISD staff as lead consultants to guide local district educators in successful strategies for curriculum accommodation, positive behavioral intervention, assistive technology applications, transition and consultation model for assessment/diagnostic services;
- continuation of parent/family support systems on an interagency basis;
- integration of special education planning into the school improvement process legally mandated for local districts which assures site-based decision-making at the building level.

This commitment required an intensive study for the superintendents spanning from 1988-91. Decisions were made to abolish the MAISD special education transportation system as of June 1991. Classroom operations were transitioned to the local school districts during the 1992-93 and 1993-94 school years. All staff associated with these programs were laid off from the MAISD and applied for jobs within the local school districts. As per the School Code in Michigan seniority rights were retained by classroom personnel and placement for salary/benefit packages were made with respect to seniority previously recognized at MAISD. Planning meetings were held with union leadership from all respective districts and the Superintendents Standing Committee on Special Education to accomplish a smooth transition. As a result, only four personnel remained on lay-off status at the MAISD upon culmination of these arrangements. All of these people have acquired positions in various capacities since that time.

To implement a systems change effort of this magnitude, staff development was a key component in restructuring the overall framework of responsibilities. The MAISD Special Education Administration developed an Accountability/Decision Facilitation Framework for Staff Development which was approved by the Superintendents' Roundtable. The mission statement reads:

> Local school districts will demonstrate the expertise necessary for planning, implementing and evaluating least restrictive environment (LRE) services and options for students through staff development and technical assistance that focuses on:
>
> - teacher attitudes/instructional behaviors,
> - relationships among special/general/vocational educators and the community,
> - implementation of the intents within federal/state, legislation, policies, guidelines and projects, and
> - the quality, relevance and effectiveness of special education programs/services.

Goals for staff development are established annually within the priorities highlighted by the area needs assessment process.

Principles which have emerged from this systems change project include:

- Recognizing the central/pivotal role of the respective school building's school improvement plan as an overarching framework for staff/student/parent development;
- Treating staff/students/parents with dignity and respect;
- Honoring and respecting building level diversity within the local school district as reflected in the school improvement process;
- Promoting building level decision-making to develop a continuum of options for the IEP Committee;
- Employing flexible, accessible and responsive options for students based on functional life-related planning;
- Sharing relevant information with educators/families about all available resources;
- Encouraging educator/family collaboration and partnerships;
- Employing staff development practices which focus on serving ALL students;
- Encouraging teacher to teacher and student to student support systems;
- Using the "broader community", e.g. other school districts, agencies, businesses, universities, etc. as a context for supporting students with special needs;
- Mobilizing and building district "teams" to assist other educators/parents develop the levels of knowledge/skill necessary to serve ALL children.

All twelve districts within the MAISD are implementing unique plans to serve the students with disabilities within their buildings - no two implementation plans are exactly the same. Some buildings employ co-teaching models, others work in collaborative teams in which the special education staff have varying roles as determined by the needs, in other buildings LRE aides have provided an extra level of support to assure meaningful experiences occur for all students - the key has been on "what works" for the respective building staff based on the skills and resources that each member brings to the situation. The critical element which has been necessary on a continuous basis in all implementation sites has been a central source for staff development leadership, facilitation, fiscal resources and assessment of needs. MAISD's administrative staff have assumed this responsibility and continues to provide the network of resources which must be brought together to assist educators and parents in developing effective implementation plans. All MAISD special education consulting staff assume various roles in providing technical assistance to building/district staff - they have become "generalists" in responding to the variety of needs which any student in the building may have.

The twelve superintendents have become very proficient in determining overall district-wide priorities for students with disabilities as a result of their individual district experiences, inter-district collaboration and regional decision-making responsibilities. They are very sensitive to the range of needs within their student population and aware of the complexity involved in responding to these needs with limited resources. Once again, the strong central resource of administrative facilitation from the ISD is critical to all twelve superintendents in order to establish consistency in standards/practices, a clear working knowledge of the service delivery system, and an equitable distribution of resources based on prioritization of needs. The MAISD Superintendents' Standing Committee on Special Education meets regularly with the MAISD Special Education Director. In turn this committee reports to the MAISD Superintendents' Roundtable monthly and seeks collaborative agreements as necessary. The Standing Committee provides input/feedback on the MAISD Special Education Budget throughout the development process.

Extensive systems change within this two-county area has been largely successful because of the commitment from the superintendents' as educational leaders to "harness" their respective districts' resources in collaboration with the MAISD to provide a better continuum of educational options for ALL students.

Regional Technical Assistance/Staff Development

In 1993 the Director of the Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative Project recognized the need for the expansion of the Project's training resources within the Upper Peninsula of Michigan. As additional sites in the Upper Peninsula were accepted on the Project, the statewide staff revised the model to contract with the MAISD to provide the technical assistance for other districts in the Upper Peninsula (U.P.). The U.P. consists of 15 counties with 7 Intermediate School Districts serving 63 local school districts. This area represents 30% of the state's land mass with only 3.5% of the state's population/school enrollment.

During 1993-94, MAISD established a pilot technical assistance relationship with one local school district which had applied to be an implementation site with the State Initiative. This district is located 3 hours away from the MAISD so a creative plan for technical assistance was agreed upon. The administrative staff at MAISD identified "effective implementers" within their local school districts and developed teams at the elementary, middle and secondary levels for awareness sessions. The teams consisted of parents and general/special educators - including an administrative representative. Visits were arranged for the teams to travel to the new site for pre-arranged awareness sessions followed by site visitations in the implementing schools for more "hands-on observations". These sessions were then supplemented by application-oriented meetings held via video-conference between "match teams" from the districts. The video-conference sessions provided the detailed problem-solving opportunities for staff as they struggled with schedule changes, curriculum accommodations, co-teaching responsibilities and identifying appropriate support services. The capacity for video-conferencing became an integral part of the technical assistance continuum. Through this vehicle, application levels of implementation became possible at the new site.

For the 1994-95 school year, the Office of Special Education, Michigan Department of Education has supported this regional concept of technical assistance and expanded it to all seven Intermediate School Districts in the U.P. A similar process was followed as in 1993-94 with a regional needs assessment conducted in meetings with local educators. Following this, local workshops have been arranged with teams of MAISD educators/parents traveling to the new implementation sites for initial awareness sessions. Matches of elementary, middle or secondary teams are made with consideration for similar size school districts, interests in building plans, e.g. co-teaching, integrated paraprofessional support, types of students being recommended for inclusion. The new regional sites will then arrange for visitations within the MAISD. Follow-up planning will occur via video-conferences wherever the capacity for this exists. All areas of the U.P. are currently in process of installing this technology, but some are not yet operational.

The goals of the regional staff development components are to a) support individuals/districts in their ability to move students into general education environments and to b) support individuals/districts in their abilities to serve students in general education environments. Implementation of these goals requires an intense degree of collaboration, coordination and creativity to "harness the resources that abound within our rural schools to create systems change for ALL kids".

Other components of the regional staff development plan which support these goals include:

- An annual U.P. Special Education Conference held at Northern Michigan University each February, sponsored by the U.P. Special Education Directors (from seven ISD's).

- An annual week-long Summer Institute initiated by MAISD and Northern Michigan University in 1990 and held each year in June on the NMU campus.

- A regional U.P. Staff Development Project coordinated by the U.P. Special Education Directors to increase the capacities of the educational community in effectively serving all students by providing a continuum of staff development opportunities throughout the year. This plan also provides specialty workshops as needed, e.g. ADHD, autism, assistive technology, Tourette's syndrome, Fetal Alcohol Syndrome and other topics which require study or directly impact the teaching/learning process of children. The principles adhered to in this project focus on plans that a) provide for continuity of events that reinforce/expand the expertise, knowledge base, application skills over time; b) provide for outreach throughout the U.P. to include video-conferencing; c) build a unified staff development system within a district; d) provide opportunities for research in the rural schools; e) investigate various models for staff development within a continuum of life long learning needs; f) develop educators' awareness of new concepts/practices/research; g) integrate the various roles/functions of persons in the educational community/related agencies.

- A biennial U.P. Parent Conference developed by the parents who represent Parent Advisory Committees in the seven ISD's. This conference is supported by the Office of Special Education, Michigan Department of Education, so that there are no registration/meal costs for parents attending. Travel stipends are provided to the degree funds are available.

- Direct coordination with Northern Michigan University in Marquette, Michigan. Most educators throughout the U.P. receive their pre-service training at NMU and seek graduate course-work on campus or through field courses. The Associate Dean for Education is an integral part of the U.P. Special Education Directors Association and meets regularly with the group to support the staff development continuum. The Associate Dean represented the U.P. on the recent State Task Force for Rules Revision of Special Education Rules. The university has representation on most regional planning levels regarding staff development for the U.P.

Evaluation Summary:

The evaluation of the MAISD and initial regional systems change initiatives described in this article have been incorporated into the overall Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative Implementation Report published in 1994 by the developmental Disabilities Institute at Wayne State University and Office of Special Education, Michigan Department of Education. As of 1993-94 the Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative had impacted 23 counties in the state through long-term intense support to 20 implementation sites with an additional 37 counties being impacted through short-term support. The 1994-95 efforts throughout the Upper Peninsula of Michigan are not included in that report.

Statewide summary results as synthesized in the Report include:

- Inclusive education has grown steadily since the first year of implementation in the original seven school districts. The beginning of the fourth year of implementation witnessed a tripling of the number of students being served in regular education full time with support. While these students represent the full range of disability labels, ALL of these students share one characteristic in common: Prior to the implementation of this Initiative, they all were educated in segregated special education classrooms and programs FULL TIME.

- While growth has been most dramatic in the elementary schools, inclusive education has been growing at a steady rate in all grade levels. The beginning of the fourth year of implementation witnessed, at minimum, a doubling of students in each of three educational levels.

- Students in middle school and high school programs are supported primarily through co-teaching models. Elementary students are supported through classroom based services and consultation.

- Since the inception of this Initiative, significant numbers of students with severe disabilities have moved out of segregated schools and classrooms into regular education settings. Clearly the students that have moved from segregated facilities have moved directly into regular education rather than taking an intermediate step into a separate classroom. While progress has been steady, continued support is needed to reduce the ongoing segregation.

An early study specific to the MAISD, based on data collected in 1990-91 with 15 different students from four school districts, highlights some of the indicators of systems change efforts:

- Teacher Support. In general, both general education and special education staff felt supported in their present situations. Sixteen areas of support were identified in the surveys. When support was requested and delivered, it was reported to be effective by both general and special education staff. It was noted that general education teachers tended to be more satisfied than special education staff. There were isolated situations where support had been requested and not delivered.

- Staff Commitments. Open-ended questions and requests for additional information gave respondents ample opportunity to express perceptions concerning inclusive education. None of the comments could be considered anything but supportive. However, a number of concerns were identified. Some examples; the need to better prepare aides for their assignments; the availability of consultants; time for planning and coordination; health problems of some students; and communication among staff.

- Interaction Opportunities. In general, parents and teachers agree on the opportunities of interaction between the included student and the non-handicapped student. The areas in which opportunities are most likely to exist are in school situations, such as: sitting next to others in class; eating lunch; assemblies; and attending art, music and PE. Areas in which interactions are least likely to exist are outside of school, such as: being invited to each others' homes; telephone calls; after-school activities; or going to social events together (e.g. movies, fast-food restaurants). This finding is interesting in that the parents report that their primary concern before including their child was the possibility of social isolation in the general education setting. However, they believed that their children would have increased opportunities for skill development in the general education setting.

- Interactions. Observation data reveal that non-handicapped students are more likely to initiate interactions (59% of the time) than included students (41% of the time). When these interactions occurred, the initiated interaction was acknowledged 76% of the time. Sixteen percent of the time the initiated interaction was ignored, while 8% of the time the included student's facial/verbal/physical affect was positive, 11% of the time the affect was negative, and 25% of the time a judgement could not be made. Concerning the feelings of parents and teachers about the interactions between included and non-handicapped students, there is a great deal of agreement that the interactions are comfortable, sincere, and not patronizing. In describing the overall climate of the classrooms in which their children were placed, parents used only positive adjectives (e.g. caring, happy, cooperative, etc.)

A follow-up study on "The Impact of Inclusive Education Placements in Michigan" (1993) included the 1990-91 MAISD district data along with that from other areas in the state. In this study 89 students were followed from four different ISD's. A summary of the findings follows:

- In general, parents reported mostly positive changes in family life since including their children in general education settings. Those positive changes include: a) increased interactions with friends of the family, b) interactions with immediate family members, c) decreased behavioral problems presented by the child, and d) increased interactions with extended family members.

- One of the advantages of an inclusive education option is reduced transportation time to and from school. The mean length of transportation time to school after the inclusive education program placement was 19.7 minutes, while the mean length of transportation time to school before the inclusive education program placement was 45.2 minutes.

- Both special education teachers and general education teachers reported that, when requested, they have received effective teacher collaboration and support for inclusion. For both special education teachers and general education teachers, the most effective area was "support of/from other teaching staff". However, special education teachers reported that some (4.5%) of their requests for teacher collaboration and support were not delivered. General education teachers also reported that some (8.5%) of their requests for teacher collaboration and support were not delivered.

- Both parents and teachers perceived that opportunities for student interaction with nondisabled students were enhanced in an inclusive education option. Opportunities for student interaction with non-disabled students in "out-of-school" settings does not appear to be enhanced by placement in general education settings.

- In general, compared to non-disabled students in the same classrooms, included students were more engaged in tutoring by an aide and less engaged in both teacher-directed instruction and individual seat work.

Through the MAISD Accountability Framework for Staff Development, the following data represents averages of annual services provided during the past four years within the 12 local school districts (MAISD):

Number of staff development session	198
Number of staff development hours	558
Number of participants in total sessions	1,859
Number of presenters for total sessions	287

For the past five years, data gathered on the annual Summer Institute indicates an average of 226 persons participating each summer. On an overall 7 point evaluation rating scale, the mean score is 6.24 during this same period of time, reflecting a very high degree of satisfaction.

On a statewide level, the Michigan Inclusive Education Initiative annually provided training/technical assistance for approximately 20,000 professionals, paraprofessionals and parents. The following areas were addressed: program design/administration, student planning process, curriculum integration/ accommodation, instructional models/strategies, social integration/community building, classroom-based ancillary services, classroom management, positive behavioral supports and paraprofessional roles.

Conclusion:

The results reflecting the coordinated efforts of the ISD's in the U.P., in conjunction with the Developmental Disabilities Institute and the Office of Special Education (MDE), demonstrates that systems change can effectively occur in rural schools to expand options for ALL students. The degree of impact on the teaching/learning process for children is highly related to the nature and continuity of staff development experiences provided. Continuing research in this area will be conducted within the Upper Peninsula of Michigan in cooperation with the Developmental Disabilities Institute to develop conclusions over long-term implementation. Currently, however, the ISD's are collaborating with Developmental Disabilities Institute and the Office of Special Education, Michigan Department of Education, to "harness all resources" to create effective educational options for ALL students.

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Michael E. Sullivan, Ed.D.
West Virginia Graduate Coll
P.O. Box 1003
Institute, WV 25112

RURAL SETTINGS: ONE APPROACH TO MEETING TEACHER STAFFING NEEDS VIA ALTERNATIVE CERTIFICATION

Historically, teacher shortages in critical certification areas such as special education have generated extensive dialogue between public education (K-12) and teacher education programs. West Virginia, a very rural and sparsely populated state has been no stranger to these discussions. A review of the West Virginia Department of Education's annual reports, Supply/Demand of Educational Personnel, for the last nine years revealed that nearly one of every three educators assigned to special education settings served on some type of sub-standard license. Further, the percentage of personnel on emergency licenses did not decline significantly in spite of the efforts of both public and higher education.

Investigators into the nature of chronic special education teachers shortages revealed a number of interesting factors contributing to this problem. One fact which became immediately apparent was that there was actually no shortage of fully certified personnel in some areas of exceptionality. For example, in 1992-1993, there were 2064 fully certified mentally retardation persons teaching in West Virginia (West Virginia Department of Education, 1993). During the same year, there were 1112 employees assigned to mental retardation settings. Among these 1112 employees, 17.3 percent were serving on sub-standard licenses. The same pattern existed for other areas of assignment for a number of years. The illusion of "shortage" was created by state code and regulation which allow certified general educators to use emergency licensure as an entry-level route to secure employment, obtain full licensure in special education while at the same time accruing seniority within their school district. Then, when a general education position opens, the recently licensed special educators may use their senior status to "bid out", leaving yet another assignment to be filled on an emergency-licensure basis. Recognition of this problem served as a primary force in the development of an alternative certification track for students whose formal training was in a field other than education. Prior to describing this program, it is important to set the context within which the development of the alternative program occurred.

Overview-Alternative Teacher Certification

Koff, Floris and Crouin (1976) described traditional teacher certification as a process developed to assure that those who enter the teaching profession meet some set of minimum competency standards. Each state has the latitude to set these standards and a document developed by the National Association of Directors of Teacher Education and Certification annually describes these requirements. Typically, traditional certification programs included specific credit hour requirements to be earned from higher education institutions in the content (subject) area, professional studies (e.g. methodology) and in practica (student or practice

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Alternative teacher certification, within the context of this paper, may be described as a departure from the more traditional undergraduate route through teacher education programs. In addition, the program to be described differed from traditional certification by establishing a different target population and length of training rather than in program content, vigor or expected outcome.s This was consistent with the position advocated by Smith et al. (1985). Further, the features of alternative programs recommended by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education were adopted and included rigorous admissions standards, curriculum appropriate to the beginning teacher, a supervised internship and competency examinations in both the subject field and professional studies.

The alternative program described in this paper is one of a series of programs offered among the states for the purpose of attracting quality adults who already have at least a bachelor's degree into the teaching profession. As of September 1991, eleven states had alternative certification programs that were recognized in the most recent National Center for Education Information report (1993) on alternative teacher certification.

Program Description

The goal of the alternative special education program is to provide educational opportunities for students at the post-bachelor's and master's degree level to become teachers of exceptional children in one of three categories: mental retardation, specific learning disabilities, or behavior disorders. Individuals seeking certification in the areas of mental retardation, learning disabilities, and behavior disorders may come into the program from non-education fields.

Program experiences in special education involve examining traditional and contemporary practices, using the terminology of the field, and identifying the characteristics of each group of exceptional children relative to historical, environmental, educational, cultural, legal and political conditions. The utilization of standardized and criterion referenced diagnostic tests in the cognitive and affective areas is also a part of program experiences.

Developing cognitive and affective diagnostic hypotheses for each child and generating and translating those data into educational programming are stressed in the program. Selecting and developing materials, determining appropriate approaches to instruction, and developing and using behavioral objectives are of principal importance. Additionally, planning and developing a total teaching environment that promotes effective learning through flexible scheduling in a variety of administrative arrangements are required experiences in the alternative special education program.

General Admission Requirements

Students seeking admission to the Special education Program must submit the following:

1. Official transcripts from all colleges or universities (an undergraduate GPA of 3.0 or above is preferred);
2. Three recommendations on forms available in the Office of Admission and Records;
3. Detailed personal statement of life and work experiences and career goals and aspirations regarding special education; and
4. Score on the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) Aptitude Test. A score of 900 or above is preferred. This requirement is waived for applications holding a graduate degree.

Additional Admission Requirements for Non-Education Majors Seeking Mr, SLD, or BD certification must:

1. Take and pass the Pre-Professional Skills Test (PPST) before enrolling in any special education certification coursework. The PPSt is waived upon documentation from a single test administration of the American College Testing Program (ACT) composite score of 25 or above, an enhanced ACT score of 26 or above, or a scholastic Achievement Test score of 1035. The PPST is waived for individuals with a graduate degree.
2. Complete the following prerequisite courses with a GPA of 3.25 before beginning special education certification coursework:

Ed. 500	-	Survey: Introduction, History and Philosophy of Education	3 hrs.
Ed. 516	-	Human Development	3 hrs.
Rdng. 525	-	Psychological Foundations of Reading	3 hrs.
Sp. Ed. 507	-	Introduction to Consultative Collaboration	1 hr.
Sp. Ed. 508	-	Mentorship and Effective Teaching	1 hr.
Sp. Ed. 509	-	Transition: Planning and Implementation	1 hr.

3. Take and pass the state Multi-Subjects Content Specialization test (K-8) during the first six hours of certification coursework in Special Education.

Multiple criteria are used in arriving at a decision to admit students to the special education program. Each applicant is evaluated with reference to the following criteria: GRE scores, letters of recommendation, quality of content and written expression in the personal statement, undergraduate grade point average, and performance on graduate courses completed. Flexibility is maintained in the application of the criteria to individual cases through the use of a weighting scale.

If the applicant's weighted score falls below the acceptable minimum for admission as a degree or professional development student, the student may be eligible for provisional enrollment. A student who is on provisional status must take nine (9) hours of specified coursework with a GPA of 3.25 and then reapply for admission as a professional development student. Further, a student admitted as a professional development student may reapply for admission as a degree student if he/she completes all certification requirements with an overall GPA of 3.25.

Degree Requirements

Each degree program includes all certification work for one of the specializations. Degree students follow a planned program of study and must maintain a cumulative grade point average of 3.0. Degree students are required to plan and implement an original research study in their area of specialization. Students must also pass a written comprehensive examination.

Program of Studies
Master's Degree in Special Education

A master's degree may be earned with a specialization in one of three areas: Behavior Disorders, Mental Retardation or Specific Learning Disabilities. Students are responsible for checking all course descriptions for prerequisites.

Program Requirements for BD, MR, and SLD

Core Courses Required in BD, MR and SLD* 12 hrs.

Sp. Ed. 500 Introduction to Special Education
Sp. Ed. 550 Assessment in Special Education
Sp. Ed. 553 General Program Planning for Exceptional Children
Ed. 501 Seminar: Educational Research

Certification Area Specific Courses* 9 hrs.

Learning Disabilities

Sp. Ed. 504 Characteristics and Etiology - LD
Sp. Ed. 561 Program Planning/Implementation - LD
Sp. Ed. 610 Field Experience - LD

Behavior Disorders

Sp. Ed. 503 Characteristics and Etiology - BD
Sp. Ed. 556 Program Planning/Implementation - BD
Sp. Ed. 611 Field Experience - BD

Mental Retardation

Sp. Ed. 501 Characteristics and Etiology - MR
Sp. Ed. 559 Program Planning and Implementation - MR
Sp. Ed. 609 Field Experience - MR

Required Degree Courses 18 hrs.

Sp. Ed. 601 Sp. Ed. Research, Part I (3 hours)
Sp. Ed. 602 Sp. Ed. Research, Part II (3 hours)
Approved Electives (12 hours)

Total Hours for Degree 39 hrs.

*Students must complete 12 hours of core courses and 9 hours of certification area specialization course to obtain initial certification in each area. Additional endorsements may be added with the completion of the 9 hours of certification areas specific courses.

Additional Certification Requirements

All Special Education majors must take the Content Specialization test in the area(s) in which they seek endorsement, i.e., BD, SLD., and MR. The Special Education Content Specialization Test is taken at the end of the certification coursework in Special Education.

Students

This alternative program was initiated in the 1986-87 academic year. Since that time, 104 students from non-traditional backgrounds have sought admission to the program. The average student was 33.2 years of age, had two children and was otherwise fully employed. Only four students attended classes on a full-time basis. Additionally, these students were drawn from 31 of the state's 55 counties.

Course delivery

Delivery of coursework is always a challenge for an institution which has a "campus bound", a variety of techniques have been utilized to service rural students. Traditionally, the institution has relied heavily on a cadre of carefully selected adjunct faculty who join full-time faculty in traveling to one of the seven "distant" sites. In addition, both audio-only and video-teleconferencing (with audio bridge) are utilized to link distant sites with professors. To date, identification of cohort groups formed to participate in the preliminary block of coursework has been only partially implemented due to the geographic dispersion of these non-traditional students. Finally, a variety of alternative class meeting schedules have been developed to fit the nature of some coursework or a particular group of students.

Results

Students who participate in this alternative program typically have three competency tests to master in addition to coursework and prior to receiving a recommendation for certification. The special education program has utilized competency tests developed by the State Department of Education via contract with National Evaluation Systems for this purpose. The first is the Preprofessional Skills Test (PPST) which measures basic skills in the areas of mathematics, reading and writing. This test is waived for applicants with acceptable performance levels on either the ACT (25) or an SAT score of 1035 or for those holding a graduate degree. Results thus far are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF EXAMINEES AND PASS RATES FOR PPST BY INSTITUTION AND STATE

	Institution (alternative program)	State
Number of Examinees	34	9167
Examinee Pass Rate (%)	88.2	92.0

The second competency test is the Multi-Subject Test (Grades K-8). This test is typically required by students exiting four year early/middle childhood (K-8) teacher preparation programs. An underlying assumption of all K-12 special education certification programs described earlier is that the non-traditional student will be able to demonstrate those skills by successfully completing this test. Results to date are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF EXAMINEES AND PASS RATES FOR MST (K-8) BY INSTITUTION AND STATE

	Institution (alternative program)	State
Number of Examinees	74	3121
Percent Passing	86.5	93.0

Having successfully mastered the first two competency test requirements, the student is eligible to complete the remaining certification coursework, the clinically supervised practicum and the final exceptionality-specific (SLD, BD or MR) competency test required for certification. Results to date are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF EXAMINEES AND PASS RATES FOR SP. ED. COMPETENCY TESTS BY INSTITUTION AND STATE

	Institution (alternative program)	State
Number of Examinees	65	1153
Pass Rate (%)	98.3	96.4

Discussion

Of a total of 104 students from non-traditional backgrounds who have sought special education licensure through this alternative route, 65 have completed all certification requirements successfully. It is important to note the effect of the succession of competency testing requirements upon the terminal licensure testing success ratios for the alternative program. On the surface, it appears that these screens have successfully filtered the applicants for desirable qualities and potential as is evident in the high success rate for those at the final competency determination level of testing. One limitation of the study (and one that bears further investigation) is the fact that the competency testing utilized specify minimum competency levels rather than more advanced performance standards.

"States report that more than 20,000 people have been licensed through alternative certification programs since 1985" (National Center for Education Information, 1993). It is the belief of this writer that those students who have completed this alternative certification track meet the most important performance criterion of being "safe to practice", a standard proposed by Williamson et al. in 1985. Currently, efforts are being made to examine retention rates via a follow-up study. If the turnover rate for these special educators is significantly diminished as expected, one more puzzle piece may be added in the effort to serve special needs students in rural settings.

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David J. Mercaldo
Barry L. Griffing
Idaho State University
Pocatello, Idaho

REGIONAL INSERVICE TRAINING MODEL FOR PROFESSIONALS WORKING WITH DEAF AND HARD OF HEARING STUDENTS IN RURAL AND REMOTE AREAS.

Introduction

The continuing education of educators is necessary if they are to acquire new information and skills that will help them meet the needs of learners. This idea applies equally to professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing children. Unfortunately, the realization of this is complicated by the lack of available and accessible training. Furthermore, for teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing, speech-language pathologists, educational audiologists, educational interpreters, and regular educators who work with students who are hearing disabled in rural areas, opportunities to acquire new information and skills are virtually non-existent. For them financial and geographic constraints are real and significant. Rarely is anything done to address the situation faced by rural educators of the deaf and hard of hearing and their specific training needs.

Purpose

This paper describes an inservice training model for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in five intermountain states: Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming. Specifically, it describes the following: [1] the rationale for offering inservice training on a regional basis, [2] relevant research, [3] the Regional Inservice Training Model, and [4] a description of the Intermountain Special Study Institute. The paper concludes with some observations.

Rationale

The rationale underlying the Regional Inservice Training Model [RIST-M] is grounded in three realities. These are: regionalism, law, and economics.

Regionalism: The overall mission of the Education of the Hearing Impaired training program at Idaho State University is to be a regional resource to five intermountain states. Specifically, it offers pre-service training during the academic year, as well as during the summers, to individuals who want to become certified teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing. In addition, it assists state departments of education, local education agencies, and special schools in their efforts to fulfill federal and state special education requirements. Over the years this focus has expanded to include a commitment to working with affected parties for the purposes of increasing contact among professionals working with the deaf and hard of hearing in these rural states, promoting collaboration among service providers within and between these states, and enhancing the skills and understandings of those professionals involved in the education of students with impaired hearing.

Federal and State Law: As stated in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (I.D.E.A.), regulation 300.322(b);

> ...states are required to have procedures and activities to ensure that teachers, administrators, and related service personnel may acquire sufficient knowledge derived from educational research and demonstrated promising practice...

This federal requirement, as well as accompanying state regulations, is part of the rationale underlying the regional inservice model. Furthermore, a regional or multi-state inservice training approach is an efficient and effective way to address this requirement.

Economics: States with dense populations are able to undertake this requirement within their own boundaries. States with sparse populations face the dilemma of participating in training activities in other states, or sponsoring their own training activities. With respect to the former, travel costs and other related arrangements drive up costs of such activities, thereby, limiting the number of individuals who can participate. The latter also has drawbacks; most notably, the financial restrictions sparsely populated states face in training activities that are of high quality for professionals involved in education of low incidence populations. An option for sparsely populated rural states is to collectively support an endeavor that will provide inservice training to professionals working with a low incidence population such as deaf and hard of hearing school age children and youth. Such multi-state support of this type will require a regional effort to provide inservice training that is sensitive to the region's educational needs, that advances the knowledge base and quality practices of those involved, that promotes collaboration among professionals within a state and between states, and that encourages individuals working in rural and remote areas to remain there.

Review of the Literature

Effective and efficient inservice training for educators is acknowledged in many recent national reports, books, and journals. Although professionals working with students who are deaf and hard of hearing are not identified in these materials, it is assumed that their professional growth is of equal value. Consequently, a brief review of this literature will provide a foundation for the regional inservice training model.

Staff Development: Education of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing: The field of the education of the deaf and hard of hearing has a long history of providing a variety of mechanisms for furthering the education of teachers and thereby, improving the education of deaf and hard of hearing students. Inservice education sponsored by state special schools, summer courses offered through teacher training programs in the education of deaf and hard of hearing, and special workshops have been the mainstay of those concerned with the continued education and development of teachers in this field.

Three outstanding staff development achievements in the field of deaf education are worth noting. The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, Inc. (C.A.I.D.) has served the profession on the national scene since the 1850s with bi-annual conventions. The famous summer institutes at Ball State University did much to assist administrators and teachers from residential schools for the deaf to deal with instructional and curricular issues of the late 1950s to the mid 1970s. The equally famous captioning institutes sponsored by the University of Nebraska advanced the working knowledge of these same types of individuals in matters relating to the implementation of technology in the 1960s through the 1980s. Each of these endeavors was successful because they targeted a specific purpose/need and provided quality training.

Staff Development: Research: The continuing education of teachers is not a new idea. Research on this topic is quite extensive (Henry, 1957; Griffin, 1983; and Joyce, 1990) and somewhat controversial. According to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990), some of the staff development research of the 1970s revealed that teachers were dissatisfied with inservice efforts. Fullan (1982) was more blunt when he stated that inservice activities were a failure. He listed seven reasons why such activities failed to change teacher practice:

- One-shot workshops were widespread, but ineffective.
- Topics were selected for people other than those for whom the inservice was intended.
- Follow-up support for ideas and practices did not occur.
- Follow-up evaluation did not occur.

* Inservice programs rarely addressed the participants' needs and concerns.
*Participants came from multiple schools and differences were not recognized.
* Inservice programs lacked any conceptual basis in planning and implementation.

In the 1980s, according to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990), the situation changed in that the educational community, researchers, and state legislatures realized that school programs and practices would not improve without some kind of staff development. Subsequent research involving the actual practice of staff development discovered that the staff development process could be made more effective if the following were achieved:

* Staff members have a common, coherent set of goals and objectives that they helped formulate, reflecting high expectations.
* Staff members participate as helpers of each other, offering demonstrations and feedback.
* Staff development organizers provide strong leadership, the norm of collegiality, promoting informal communication, and coordination without control.
* Staff development organizers place high priority on staff development and continuous improvement of personal skills, sharing job knowledge, and a norm of continuous improvement applicable to all.

According to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990) additional inquiries into the process of staff development and the identification of what constitutes effective staff development have resulted in a conceptualization that includes five staff development models. Stated briefly these models are as follows:

* **Individually Guided Staff Development**: a process through which teachers plan for and pursue activities they believe will promote their own learning.
* **Observation/Assessment Model:** a procedure that provides teachers with objective data and feedback regarding their classroom performance.
* **Developmental/Improvement Process:** a process that engages teachers in developing curriculum, designing programs, or engaging in a school-improvement process to solve general or particular problems.
* **Training Model**: a process that involves teachers in acquiring knowledge or skills through appropriate individual or group instruction.
* **Inquiry Model**: a process that requires teachers to identify an area of instructional interest, collect data, and make changes in their instruction on the basis of an interpretation of those data.

Of these models, the **Training Model** of staff development, with its well defined structure and delivery system, has received the most attention in practice and research.

Staff Development: Rural Research: Information on rural staff development is very limited. Miller and Hull (1991) in a study of rural professional isolation indicated that research on rural staff development was insufficient. They attributed this to the following factors:

* a majority of educational staff development research has focused on non-rural educational settings.
* inservice rural education has used "urban" staff development models that fail to meet the needs of rural school educators/districts.
* research needs to recognize rural school/community factors such as:
  ** multi-grade schools
  ** small school/district size
  ** limited financial and human resources
  ** geographic isolation

They also noted that if professional renewal programs were to be undertaken in rural areas, then certain guidelines should be followed. Their suggestions included the following:

* Staff development programs and activities should be based on clearly identified needs.
* Provisions should be available for long-term professional development.
* Rural educators need to try out new behaviors, exchange ideas, and receive helpful feedback in a supportive climate.

- Use incentives to motivate rural educators to seek professional growth.
- Rural educators need to be involved in the establishment of renewal goals.
- Rural administrators need to support renewal efforts.

As indicated by the authors, these suggestions provide a useful framework for developing a staff development program for rural educators.

Regional Inservice Training Model [RIST-M]

As indicated previously, the field of the education of the deaf and hard of hearing has provided professionals with various means of continuing their education. Unfortunately, some of these options no longer exist (i.e., Ball State University curriculum projects), or are in essence, national conventions and not staff development programs. While C.A.I.D. meetings offer relevant topics, meetings are typically not accessible to rural educators because of distance and costs. Furthermore, efforts that have been undertaken have not attempted to understand the process of staff development itself; that is, staff development in the education of the deaf and hard of hearing has not sought to inquire as to what makes for effective staff development within this field. As a result, there are workshops on a variety of topics relevant to educators of the deaf and hard of hearing, but no research is underway to investigate what constitutes an effective staff development program in this field.

In the absence of staff development research in the area of the education of the deaf and hard of hearing, and recognizing that improved student/school performance is linked to continuous teacher development, a need exists to develop a practical, efficient model of staff development that would be useable in diverse areas; rural and urban. Such an inservice training model for professionals working with students with hearing disabilities should have an underlying foundation that reflects recent research and quality practices. Such a conceptual framework is offered in Table 1. The framework's features, which underlie the proposed Regional Inservice Training Model (**RIST-M**), must assure that teachers, specialists, and others gain new knowledge derived from research and learn of promising practices that will enable them to enhance their own programs and services to deaf and hard of hearing students.

Table 1: Regional Inservice Training Model (Framework and factors)

Content	
	1. Identify and define needs
	2. Increased knowledge base
	3. Skill development
	4. Quality practices
Structure	
	1. Training Model
	2. Use of national speakers
	3. Use of regional peer presenters
Delivery	
	1. Cost efficient and program effective
	2. Geographic location
Support	
	1. OSEP/ISU/Intermountain States Partnership
	2. Incentives for growth and change

The Intermountain Special Study Institute

The inservice education model and, in particular, the model's framework was 'field tested' in the summer of 1994 with the establishment of the Intermountain Special Study Institute [ISSI] at Idaho State University. In designing ISSI, attention was given to the model's four factors: Content, Structure, Delivery, and Support. The description of ISSI that follows will provide details concerning these factors. In addition, data pertaining to participants and outcomes are presented.

Description of ISSI: In the fall of 1993, faculty members of the graduate program in the education of deaf and hard of hearing students at Idaho State University, conferred with the state directors of special education and superintendents of special schools in the intermountain region about their respective inservice needs. As a result of this inquiry, a needs assessment survey was conducted among educators of the deaf and hard of hearing in the region. The results were tabulated and a program was designed to address four needs: (a) language development of children with hearing impairments; (b) deaf and hard of hearing children with learning disabilities; (c) teacher collaboration in rural areas; and (d) technology and learners with hearing disabilities.

In developing the program, which took place over a two month period (November-December, 1993), consideration was given to three decisions. The first dealt with the basic partnership that had evolved between ISU and five intermountain states as a result of previous collaborative efforts regarding the training of classroom teachers of the deaf. The second decision concerned the process of identifying and recruiting individuals actively involved in the education of deaf and hard of hearing students. With each of these decisions it was decided to involve state directors of special education and superintendents of special schools in the process of identifying, nominating, and selecting program participants. This decision not only used these individuals in an effective manner because they were more informed about their states' needs and resources, but strengthened the basic partnership between ISU and the five intermountain states. The final decision involved the development of an inservice training program that would meet the needs identified in the regional survey. This involved the design of a program that would utilize national speakers who would add to the knowledge base of participants, as well as regional presenters who would provide 'peer' presentations relating to quality, or best practices.

During the winter of 1993, the inservice regional program for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students was developed. Potential speakers were contacted and contracts negotiated. Prospective participants were notified and informed of the summer program and corresponding arrangements and costs. Arrangements were made with ISU to grant course credit for the program. Other details were addressed and attended to during this period.

On June 5,1994 the ISU summer program for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students started. Enrollment for the five day institute was 85 professionals representing teachers of the deaf and hard of hearing, speech-language pathologists, audiologists, and educational interpreters from Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming.

In designing the summer program, attention was given to scheduling presentations so that participants had an opportunity not only to receive information from national speakers but to discuss this information with colleagues. As such, the program allowed time for group discussions following each of the four major presentations. In each of these small group discussions, which included interpreters for deaf participants, individuals were able to explore the information presented from their own perspectives, as well as to exchange ideas as to how this new information/knowledge might be implemented in their respective situations. Additional time was scheduled so that individuals could establish informal networks among colleagues from other professions, from other school districts or special schools, or from other states within the region. It was critical that each factor, national speakers, peer presenters, and networking, be considered.

Characteristics of Institute Participants: Using the "Participant Profile" form, an instrument provided by the Educational Resource Centers on Deafness (ERCD) of Gallaudet University, Complete information was collected from seventy-one of the eighty-four participants attending the

Institute: however, some tables reflect higher numbers because of partially completed forms. The following tables display the distribution of participants on several dimensions, state by state.

Table 2: State Residence of Participant / Type of Community

State	ID	MT	NV	WY	UT	TOTALS
Number	34	21	4	6	6	71
Percentage	47.9	29.6	5.6	8.5	8.5	100%
Rural/Farm	7	5	1	2	3	18(22%)
Small Town	25	9	0	4	2	40(56%)
Suburban	2	0	0	0	0	2 (3%)
Urban	0	7	3	0	1	11(15%)

Table 3: Work Classifications [Participants could identify more than one area]

Classification	ID	MT	NV	WY	UT	TOTAL	PERCENT
Teacher	2	2	0	0	0	4	5.5%
Sp. Ed. Teacher	2	2	0	0	0	4	5.5%
Deaf Ed K-12	17	12	3	2	2	36	49.3%
Early Child.	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.4%
Post Sec.	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.4%
Consultant	1	0	0	1	1	3	4.1%
Prog. Dir.	0	1	0	2	2	5	6.8%
Admin.	0	2	0	0	0	2	2.7%
Sp. Therapy	2	3	0	0	1	6	8.2%
Audiology	4	0	0	0	0	4	5.5%
Parent Adv.	2	0	0	0	0	2	2.7%
Psychologist	0	0	1	0	0	1	1.4%
Counselor	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.4%
Interpreter	1	0	0	0	0	1	1.4%
Student	1	0	0	1	0	2	2.7%

Table 4: Type of Program [Participants could identify more than one type of employment]

Type of Program	ID	MT	NV	WY	UT	TOTALS
Public	4	2	0	0	5	11 (9.0%)
Private	1	0	0	0	0	1 (.8%)
Residential	14	10	0	0	3	27 (22.1%)
Day	2	2	0	1	3	8 (6.6%)
Outreach	1	0	0	0	0	1 (.8%)
Reg. Classes	9	9	2	1	2	23 (18.9%)
Resource Room	10	4	2	1	2	20 (16.4%)
Separate Classes	9	4	2	0	2	17 (13.9%)
Post. Sec.	2	0	0	0	0	2 (1.6%)
Agency	0	1	0	1	0	2 (1.6%)
Homebound	1	0	0	0	1	2 (1.6%)

As can be seen in Tables 2-4, participants were primarily from rural areas [ie., approximately 81% of the total attendance], they worked directly in instructional settings [ie., approximately 70%] and they worked in a variety of programs within either residential settings or public school settings.

Institute Evaluation: In addition to collecting information concerning characteristics of the participants, the Institute used a four point scale to evaluate program features. Tables 5 and 6 present important information relating to the model's content, structure, and delivery.

Table 5: Mean Scores for Presentations

	ID	MT	NV	WY	UT	OTHER	TOT.
Presentation A	3.7	4.0	3.3	3.3	3.8	4.0	3.8
Presentation B	3.7	3.2	4.0	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.5
Presentation C	3.2	3.6	2.5	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.4
Presentation D	3.3	3.3	3.7	3.3	3.7	3.6	3.4
Presentation E	3.0	3.7	3.0	3.5	3.2	3.8	3.3
Presentation F	2.5	3.1	3.0	2.3	2.6	2.8	2.7

Table 6: Program Activity Mean Score Evaluations

Program Activity	ID	MT	NV	WY	UT	OTHER	TOT.
Peer Presents	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.3	2.8	3.3
R. Table Discuss	2.7	3	3	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.8
Informal Network	3.0	3.0	2.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	3.2

Based upon a review of the information presented in the above tables, it can be concluded that ISSI was perceived as being very successful in certain areas, as well as being somewhat less successful in others. Five of the six presentations were rated very high, as were two of the three program activities. This positive perception on the part of participants was also expressed in two other areas: [1] networking opportunities and [2] Institute arrangements.

Observations

As a result of offering the special study institute, four preliminary observations can be made regarding regional inservice education for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in the Intermountain West. Each of these observations will relate to a specific factor of the Regional Inservice Training Model.

Content: It is important that a needs assessment be conducted annually to determine what professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in the intermountain region consider to be current issues, concerns, and problems. Such an assessment should be done with the assistance of state directors of special education and superintendents of special schools. Results of a needs assessment survey would then determine what the content would be of the up-coming special study institute. Furthermore, results could then be compared to known data bases and thereby enhance the field's understanding of what occurs at the national, regional, and state levels with respect to rural deaf education. This information would provide affected parties (i.e., state directors of special education, superintendents of special schools, teacher educators, and others) with valuable information about surveying rural teacher populations, their needs, and the relationships of those needs to other known data bases.

Structure: Based upon a review of the institute's evaluations three observations can be offered. First, professionals working with students who are deaf and hard of hearing appreciate presenters who address relevant topics in a thorough manner and provide practical suggestions, strategies, and materials. In addition, they anticipate that presenters will be given sufficient time to develop and present their ideas. Second, these professionals indicated that time to network [ie., meet old/new colleagues, exchange ideas and in general deal with other matters] was critical. Finally, these professionals appreciated the supportive climate/culture of the institute. In general, the model's structure should reflect the institute's vision, mission, and values: that is, to provide a regional inservice education for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in rural and remote areas.

Delivery: Locating the special study institute in the largest community in rural southeastern Idaho proved to be both cost effective and efficient. Pocatello's location made it possible for the institute to operate in a very cost effective manner because travel and lodging costs were kept to a minimum. As for being efficient, the institute utilized a facility that offered a number of features [ie., centralized, modern, accessible to people with disabilities, and sufficient meeting/conference space] that made it possible for participants to attend all meetings.

Support: The institute would not have occurred without the financial support and general assistance from state departments of education and special schools in the intermountain region, as well as from Gallaudet University, the National Technical Institute for the Deaf, and Idaho State University. Their support allowed the institute to provide incentives to professionals in rural areas to participate in a week long institute. From the inception of the regional inservice training model to the implementation of the special study institute, the agencies, schools, and institutions involved were informed and consulted about all matters concerning the process of furthering the education of professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in rural areas.

Conclusion

In developing an inservice program for professionals working with deaf and hard of hearing students in rural areas three factors must be considered if it is to be program effective and cost efficient. First, it must be regional in focus because a critical mass is needed to sustain a quality program. Furthermore, this should be a collaborative approach involving SDEs, LEAs, special schools, and institutions of higher education. Second, the training should be relevant to the needs of the professionals concerned and provide them with ample time and opportunity to interact. Finally, it should be of reasonable cost so that educators can afford to attend.

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Sharon Miles
Elissa Poel
Rosalie Schenck
Gilbert Sena
New Mexico State University
Las Cruces, NM

PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT: A PRACTICAL APPROACH FOR ASSESSING RURAL CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Alternative assessment of students with special needs is a growing concern in the education arena. The authors have developed a portfolio to be used with students with special needs in a rural setting. It incorporates standardized and alternative assessments, observations, interviews, and classwork samples to provide efficient, holistic documentation for educational planning and academic success. It also is portable, concise, and holds accumulated documentation. This portfolio promotes family ownership and provides a global picture of the students academic performance in and out of the school setting.

The purpose of educational assessment is to determine what a student knows and can do in an educational environment. Well designed assessment procedures are essential to meeting the needs of all students. Through portfolio assessment, one can determine a student's educational growth and needs based on activities that represent progress towards instructional goals. Portfolio content may include, but are not limited to, teacher observations, whole language activities, performance assessment, learning styles inventory, parental input, and student self assessment. These components of portfolio content represent tasks typical of classroom and real life settings. In addition, standardized testing and diagnostics, which are screenings used to qualify students for special education services, may be included.

Currently, concerns with using only standardized tests for program placement of students with special needs are growing. Many districts administer standardized tests at every grade level. Controversy is built around the concerns that multiple choice tests fail to assess higher order thinking skills essential for functioning in school or work settings (Haney & Madaus, 1989; Neill & Medina, 1989; O'Neil, 1992). Multiple choice tests do not represent activities students perform in the classroom. They do not reflect current theories of learning and are not based on the abilities students need for future success (Herman, Aschbacher & Winters, 1992). They are often biased and cannot be used to monitor student progress in the classroom.

Because children, their needs, and the needs of society are the heart of schooling, the aim of education is to prepare them to take a productive place in society. The authors suggest that with the use of portfolios, students can become active participants in their education and in the assessment process.

Learning Styles

In a study by Dunn, Gemake, Jalali, Zenhausern, Quinn, and Spiridakis (1990) conducted among African-American and Mexican-American fourth, fifth, and sixth graders, they concluded that learning styles of various American cultures differ, and that classrooms should also differ to accommodate the needs of the student. In 1984, the Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was administered to 4,562 students in 40 schools throughout the nation. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between cultural groups (Griggs & Dunn, 1989). Griggs and Dunn cited comparative studies by Jalali (1989) surveying Mexican-Americans youth, Cazden and John (1971) surveying Native American Indian children, Kleinfeld (1973) surveying Alaskan Eskimos, John-Steiner and Osterreich (1975) surveying Pueblo children, and Mariash (1983) surveying Cree speaking youth, where all found similar preferences in a visual learning style. Jalali (1989), using the LSI with American, Mexican-American, and Greek-American elementary students, indicated that Greek-American students preferred a tactile learning style. In comparing the learning styles of Asian and Caucasian college students, Lam-Phoon (1986) reported that Caucasian youths preferred a tactile learning style as compared to the Asian youths who preferred a visual or auditory learning style. Price (1980) discussed a maturational model for learning style, beginning with tactile-kinesthetic, moving toward visual, and then finally, auditory. These researchers inferred that there was a biological basis for a person's learning style. This conclusion is arguable because the literature suggests the theory that learning style is a behavioral manifestation, thus a learned behavior. Behavioral styles may be an aspect of culture. As the student matures, the use of more than one style can be developed.

An individual's learning style can be viewed as being in concentric circles although each person has at least one preferred learning style. These concentric circles are like layers of an onion. They are the personality layer, the information processing layer, the social interaction layer, and the instructional preference layer. Each layer is influenced by the other layers. Gregorc (1985) states, "Learning styles are behaviors, characteristics, and mannerisms which are symptoms of mental qualities used for gathering data from the environment" (p. 185). He identifies learning styles as being concrete sequential, abstract sequential, concrete random, and abstract random.

Dunn (1983) further identifies four environmental elements affecting how students learn: silence vs. sound, bright vs. low light, formal vs. informal design, and warm vs. cool temperatures. *Silence vs. sound*--some people cannot think with noise. Some can block out sounds. Others seem to work best with noise in the environment. *Bright vs. low light*--for some individuals low light makes them lethargic. Others report that low light calms them and allows them to learn more easily while bright light makes them nervous and fidgety. A study by Dunn and Dunn (1978) revealed that many poor readers seemed to prefer low light. *Formal vs. informal design*--some can work only while seated on a wooden chair at a table. Others do their best studying on the floor or lounging on the bed. *Warm vs. cool temperatures*--temperature is relative. People react differently to the same thermometer degrees. Few people can learn in either extreme warmth or cold.

Generally, most people can identify their own learning style and those elements which are important to them. Dunn (1983) reports that a student achieves better when taught through the preferred styles. The modalities most often addressed in the educational setting are best described as receptive and productive modes. Receptive modalities are auditory (hearing and listening), visual (watching and seeing), and haptic or tactile/kinesthetic (touch and movement). The productive modalities are oral (talking), written (using a tool for writing), and gestural (signing and gesturing).

Therefore, in developing a curriculum, the teacher needs to address individual strengths and weaknesses and teach to a variety of learning styles. Observations teamed with learning style screenings are important in assessing a student's learning style . Understanding the learning styles of students in a classroom does help a teacher to evaluate the instructional program and to maximize student learning (Baca & Cervantes, 1989). Milone (1981) states that the most important aspect of a child's rate of learning is perception. This is the way a student gains meaning from sensations in order to learn. He affirms that teaching methods are most effective when they are consistent with a child's perceptual or modality characteristics.

A multisensory approach to instruction is an acceptable solution to accommodating learning differences (Baca & Cervantes, 1989). However, the teacher must remember to address the student's primary learning style first, and then to incorporate the other senses. Baca and Cervantes feel that "the use of multisensory approaches coupled with multicultural materials and cross cultural techniques is a good beginning in bridging bilingual [bicultural] and special learning needs of the culturally and linguistically different exceptional child" (1989, p. 216).

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests provide good, solid evidence of individual and group performance. This type of measurement tool is used as an equal component with other criteria in a portfolio. Federal mandate (Pub. L. No. 94-142) dictates that standardized testing is required to establish the existence of a learning disability and mental retardation. Results of performance on standardized tests can be utilized in comparisons with national norming populations. They provide teachers with generally recognized measurements for academic progress, and are especially helpful when the student moves from school to school or even from state to state.

Non-biased Assessment

Evaluators need to focus on ways to reduce test biases which exist in norm referenced, criterion referenced, curriculum based, and dynamic assessment. If assessment is not conducted in the most proficient communication mode of the student, the results will NOT reflect the student's potential nor academic ability. Often, appropriate language assessment will secure a more proper educational placement. One way to address language bias is to recognize that a child's native language might not be the dominant language or means of communication. This dilemma can be resolved by acquiring information from parents, school personnel, and student interviews (Ryan, 1988). It is important to realize that a test written in one's native language may not be appropriate simply because it is written in that language. Jozi DeLeon (personal communication, April 21, 1993) elaborates that any attempt to test in a person's native language would be biased to any language group regardless of language dominance or preference simply because of geographical differences (and colloquialisms). She further states that *region language* disallows the potentiality for a standardized form of language to serve as a non-bias language. She illustrated this using a portion of the Spanish version of the Woodcock-Johnson Picture Vocabulary Test by showing a picture of a ship, arguing that this type of test item is irrelevant and inappropriate for the desert southwest, regardless of language dominance or ethnicity. Her recommendation is to use tests that are standardized to local norms.

Test anxiety also lends itself to test bias. Loewen (1988) reports that gender bias in Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) items exist. His study revealed that boys did better than girls on some tests, although girls had higher school grades. He attributes this deficit to test construction. Verbal content favored boys over girls in many tests. His recommendations for sex-fairer tests include the following: (a) remove items having large response differences between the sexes unless balanced by other items; (b) manipulate mean scores on the verbal test so that males and females score equally; (c) ensure that verbal content on math items favor girls; and (d) make validity studies correlating test scores and first-year college performance widely available both to consumers and researchers. A study by Plake (1982) showed that males outperformed females on an upper division undergraduate math test when items were arranged from easy to hard. When items were arranged from hard to easy, females outperformed males.

Finally, research supports that test administrators who are familiar with examinees have a significant impact on the outcome of test scores. In a study by Fuchs & Fuchs (1983), it was reported that language impaired preschoolers performed better with a familiar examiner than with an unfamiliar examiner. Other forms of test anxieties include: competitiveness, language barriers, and a high incidence of middle ear disease, especially among Native Americans.

Portfolios

According to Pierce and O'Malley (1992), well designed assessment procedures are essential to meeting the needs of the student. An effective medium for retaining all the evaluations and testing results is the development and maintenance of a portfolio. Portfolios provide the teacher, the student, and parents with information that can be used to facilitate learning. Portfolio projects encourage students to be active learners, teachers to become facilitators and role models (Duschi, 1993) and parents to be contributing participants, too. A portfolio project represents continual measurement of a student's academic development. It provides continuity and ownership in the learning process for the child year after year. A portfolio stresses the strengths and knowledge of the student. The student achieves an understanding of the learning process through active participation in the portfolio development. Because the portfolio process requires constant examination, revision, and improvement, it provides the student the opportunity to demonstrate critical thinking skills, and make decisions regarding specific academic achievements which are to become part of the permanent record.

Portfolio Focus

The portfolio may have a definite focus on oral language skills, written language skills, or content skills (math, science, social studies). This would prevent having to go through an overwhelming amount of information in each portfolio (Pierce & O'Malley, 1992). However, the focus of this portfolio project is to provide a global picture of the rural student with special needs and is designed to reflect the mastery of goals and objectives of the Individualized Education Program.

Portfolio Contents

A portfolio should contain a combination of traditional and performance assessment samples to provide multiple indicators of a student's ability level. These multiple indicators of student performance enable evaluators to cross-check one item with another, thereby providing a global picture of a student's capabilities.

Personal history. A personal history would provide valuable information. This information could include the student's previous and present levels of academic performance, teaching techniques implemented, and program modifications attempted. Personal history documentation could also provide insight into medical complications and family background.

Special experiences. Information about the student's hobbies and special interests could provide insight into personality, likes, accomplishments, and recreational skills. They could also provide interest motivators for teaching specific academic skills.

Conference logs. Teacher conference logs, and parent conference logs, can provide a valuable exchange of information about the student. With the team approach to education, teachers meet on a daily basis to discuss student progress, curriculum, and other activities affecting students. Often insights into atypical behaviors can be addressed during conference times. Teaching techniques and parental support can be discussed to provide unity in helping a student achieve academic and social success in school.

Oral proficiency ratings. Oral proficiency ratings are used to determine oral language comprehension and production. They reflect tasks typical of classroom and real life settings. This type of assessment is authentic, aligned with the curriculum, and based on student experiences. To best fit the academic abilities of each individual student's oral proficiency, portfolio selections could include a choice of interviews, story retelling, simulations, directed dialogues, incomplete story topic prompts, teacher observation checklists, and student self evaluations.

Reading assessments. Reading is a problem solving activity in which a variety of strategies are available to the reader. Effective reading results from the reader's active participation in using word attack and comprehension skills. Reading comprehension is dynamic. It is a constantly changing construct in the mind of the reader. Interpretation of the reading material depends upon the reader's general knowledge as well as the implementation of specific reading strategies (Bednar & Kletzien, 1990).

Reading assessments are used to collect information on a range of reading behaviors. Rating scales are systematic. They take little teacher time and do not interrupt instructional time. Rating scales are designed to determine reading skills, interest application, and reading strategies. Checklists can be used biweekly, monthly, quarterly, or when appropriate for *assessment of instruction*. Information from rating scales can provide information in the following areas of reading:

1. literal and inferential comprehension, main idea, prediction and sequencing,
2. decoding skills through oral reading,
3. interest record of student selected books, and
4. oral reading, skits, art work, dictation, reading logs, and self reports on reading ability.

Writing assessment. The purpose of the writing assessment is to determine how well a student communicates in written language. An evaluator determines a student's written language skills through writing samples using writing prompts that are developmentally appropriate. Suggested topics might include familiar and interesting situations that reflect grade appropriate writing styles. Preferably, the teacher should limit topics to one genre; one to which students have already been exposed (Pierce & O'Malley, 1992). The student should be given a choice of topics. The use of natural themes such as attitude, opinion, or family would tend to avoid cultural biases. Directions should be short and clear. The student should know in advance the required amount of writing, time allotment, scoring procedures, and permitted resource materials.

Portfolio data collection. Each student's work can be collected daily, a couple of times a week, or monthly. Responsibility for collecting and updating the portfolio is with the individual student. If a student is unable to physically update the portfolio, the teacher then becomes responsible for assisting the student. The portfolio should be organized according to a table of contents.

Assessment. A portfolio provides on-going assessment. It provides a systematic and purposeful collection of student work that reflects student accomplishments. It becomes an effective management system for performance assessment. The purpose is to expand the understanding of student growth. A portfolio can be tailored to specific learning goals and objectives. It can easily be used in the classroom or schoolwide. The use of portfolios over a period of time in a variety of modes can show depth and development of student abilities. When the student maintains ownership of the portfolio, this portfolio can be helpful to the student who is moving from one program, school, or grade level to another.

A portfolio should be used in conjunction with alternative assessments as well as standardized assessments. A portfolio provides a complementary approach for reviewing language development and a collaborative approach involving teachers and students. The control then shifts from administration to teachers who are more closely involved with the student and the instruction (O'Malley & Pierce, 1991; Graves, 1983; Tierner, Carter, & Desai, 1991 as cited in Pierce & O'Malley, 1992).

Conclusions

Assessment is not an end in itself. It provides information for decision making about what the student has learned and what the student needs to achieve for academic success. Global assessment allows accurate evaluation of a student's progress and performance. It also assists in the decision making process regarding the child. The multidimensional factors of portfolio assessment provides traditional testing aspects and alternative forms of assessment to be used concurrently. "Diagnosis without prescriptive teaching is like a drink of water without a glass" (Sharon Miles, personal communication, April 18, 1993). Portfolio assessment provides authentic, immediate, and meaningful experiences for the student. Although portfolio assessment provides a rich source of information, it must be maintained over a lengthy period of time. Portfolio assessment provides an opportunity for student, teachers, parents, and evaluators to work together as a team. This team approach can provide insightful information from the combined expertise and broader, deeper understanding of a student's progress than a single source might be able to produce.

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Sheryl R. Glausier, Ph.D.
Institute for Disability Studies: UAP
Linda McDowell, M.A.
Dept. of Special Education
University of Southern Mississippi
Hattiesburg, MS

RECREATION AND LEISURE ACTIVITY PREFERENCES: CHOICE OF ACTIVITY TYPE AND FELLOW PARTICIPANTS AMONG RURAL ADOLESCENTS

In the early 1980's, researchers concluded that recreation and leisure activity preferences for individuals with mental retardation and individuals without mental retardation were very similar (Matthews, 1982). The cry for more recreation and leisure activities to be planned around "their" choices, dating back to Matthews (1982), is still being suggested today (Glausier, Whorton, & Knight, 1994)

Although, individuals with mental retardation have interests that are consistent with the general population, much of their free time is spent around their place of residence with no activities to fill the hours (Cotton, Sison, Jr., & Starr, 1981). Various studies (Hamilton & Anderson, 1983; Matthews, 1982; Cheseldine & Jeffree, 1981; and Wehman & Schleien, 1980) cite reasons for this lack of participation in recreational and leisure activities; among them are public attitude, lack of opportunities, lack of friendships, not being properly prepared for participation in age-appropriate activities, and not having learned skills for determining when scheduled events are to occur, when to leave for the event, or how to get there. Barriers to participation, such as the ones previously cited prevent persons with mental retardation from realizing all the benefits that recreational and leisure activities offer.

Recreation and leisure activity promotes physical health and conditioning, provides opportunities to make friends, improves mental health, and facilitates the enjoyment of life (Schleien, Green, & Heyne, 1993). A significant benefit attributed to participation in recreational and leisure activities according to Kelly (1990) is the acquisition of skills and activities that last a life-time, which includes successful community living.

The ability to perform skills with little or no assistance in community living settings contribute to the adolescent individual's sense of autonomy and independence. Turnbull and Turnbull (1985) state:

> Independence involves living one's own life the way one wants to live it within one's ability to do so and in a way that is consistent with one's own values and preferences. Independence is more than physical or psychological capacity, the doing of tasks without assistance. It can mean choosing to do tasks with assistance, to be dependent or interdependent. It can mean choosing with whom one will depend. It is freedom of choice, self-determination, or autonomy. Independence is value-based in the most fundamental sense (p. 109).

The freedom to exercise choice for personal activities is a valued right that most people give little consideration to on a daily basis. For individuals with mental retardation this "exercise of choice" is often made for them based on the assumption that they do not have the desire or capability to make their own decisions (Summers, 1986). The significance of an individuals' right to make their own decisions is documented in the Rehabilitation Act amendments of 1992 (P.L. 102-569) with the statement:

> Congress finds that . . .
> Disability is a natural part of the human experience and in no way diminishes the right of an individual to -
> A. Live independently;
> B. Enjoy self-determination;
> C. Make choices;
> D. Contribute to society;
> E. Pursue meaningful careers;
> F. Enjoy full inclusion and integration in the economic, political, social, cultural, and educational mainstream of American society (106 STAT. 4346).

Furthermore, with The Individuals With Disabilities Act (IDEA) of 1990 mandating transition programming for adolescents with disabilities by the age of 16 years or younger, if deemed appropriate for that individual; interests and preferences of individuals with mental retardation regarding planned activities must be considered. Transition planning for adolescent individuals involves the social area of life, which includes recreational and leisure activities.

Public attitude and programming have had an impact on recreational and leisure activity opportunity for adolescents with mental retardation by discouraging them from participating. Until recently, recreation and leisure services have placed programs for persons with disabilities as low priority (Schleien, Kiernan, & Wehman, 1981; Voeltz, Wuerch, & Wilcox, 1982). Additionally, individuals with disabilities have not always been provided the opportunities to participate in recreation and leisure activities and programs. Parents have faced regular education program providers who were reluctant to accept their children and would not provide adequate programming for children with disabilities. Segregated services developed to fill the need for recreation and leisure activities for these individuals. Voluntary parent organizations, such as the National Association for Retarded Children (NARC, currently Arc-U.S.) were established to meet the needs not met in mainstream programming for children with disabilities. Experiences with these segregated after school programs and the Special Olympic program have made parents reluctant to attempt to reinvolve their children in programs run by agencies who have historically rejected them (Schleien & Ray, 1988; Schleien, Green & Heyne, 1993).

In segregated recreational and leisure settings in which the main goal is skill acquisition, individuals with disabilities may not have the opportunity to make friends and become connected to peers within the community (Green & Schleien, 1991). Individuals with disabilities have difficulty making friends with their nondisabled peers (Cheseldine & Jeffree, 1981), especially adolescent individuals. In a study conducted by Schleien and Wehman (1986) children with severe disabilities engaged primarily in parallel or solitary play; often not taking advantage of opportunities for social interaction when opportunities were presented. Green and Schleien (1991) suggest that the long history of segregated programming has made bridging the friendship gap between persons with and without disabilities difficult. This separation has made social experiences different for both individuals with and those without disabilities and has served to isolate people from each other; even after integrated programming has occurred (Schleien, et al., 1993).

Although social inclusion is considered a necessary component of integrated recreation and leisure activities, research has shown that individuals with disabilities are not necessarily making friends with their nondisabled peers (Schleien & Ray, 1988). As previously stated, recreation skill instruction has usually taken precedence over instruction in skills appropriate for making friends (Schleien, et al., 1993). In the past, individuals with disabilities were often dumped into integrated recreational environments with little support and were left open to ridicule, resentment, or being ignored by their peers. Gottlieb, Semmel, & Veldman (1978) conducted a study with children with mild mental retardation and found that even when some social interaction occurred, friendship behaviors were not maintained with the adolescents with mental retardation outside the immediate environment.

According to Schleien, Green, & Heyne (1993) community integration in recreation and leisure programs can lead to positive social interactions and eventually to the inclusion of individuals with disabilities into community social networks. Proximity alone has not proven a successful indicator of social integration (Salzberg & Langford, 1981; Crapps, Langone, & Swain, 1985). Social skill instruction should accompany recreational and leisure skill instruction. Mere physical presents during recreational and leisure activities does not constitute social integration/inclusion. Successful social inclusion for the public school environment can be measured by (1) the way nondisabled people view people with disabilities; (2) the social environments they share; and (3) their parallel participation in social interactions (Meyers & Kishi, 1985). Strategies suggested by Schleien, et al., (1993) designed to develop friendships during recreational and leisure activities include making an assessment of current and potential friends, structuring the recreational and leisure environment to promote friendship development, and provide friendship skills instruction as part of the recreation and leisure education program.

Often individuals with mental retardation miss out on recreational and leisure opportunities simply because they do not know how to determine when the events are to occur, when to leave for the event, and how to get there (Hamilton & Anderson, 1983; Matthews, 1982; Schleien, Porter, & Wehman, 1979; Sparrow & Mayne, 1990; Dattilo & Murphy, 1991; and Glausier, Whorton, & Knight, in press). Mundy and Odum (1979) stressed developing an awareness of activities, resources, and acquisition of skills necessary for day-to-day participation in recreation and leisure activities lifelong in scope. Additionally, Joswiak (1979) emphasized the development of recreational and leisure resources within the home and the local community.

Studies investigating the impact of recreational and leisure programming for individuals with mental retardation (Anderson & Allen, 1985; and Lanagan & Dattilo, 1989) showed an increase in the participants' knowledge of leisure resources and of frequency of participation in activities. However, duration of activity involvement, frequency of social interaction, and duration of social interaction did not increase. The investigators recommended social skill development as a priority in recreation and leisure programming; which was to be supported by involvement in activities, which in turn should increase duration of involvement in recreational and leisure activities.

Adolescent individuals with mental retardation have the same desire to have a voice in the selection of their recreational and leisure activities as anyone else. The exercise of personal choice is valued as an indicator of independence, self-esteem, and self determination. Barriers discussed as responsible for the adolescent with mental retardation are compounded when that person lives in a rural area. Recreational opportunities offered in more urban areas are often not accessible in rural communities due to transportation, supervision, or funding difficulties. Rural schools often can not offer community based training and programs which encourage and enhance participation in recreational and leisure activities; therefore, skill development necessary for participation in recreational and leisure activities and opportunity are not realized. With limited resources, there needs to be a clear link between offered opportunities and the preferences of the indviduals needing support.

To determine the recreational and leisure preferences of adolescent individuals in rural south Mississippi, the Recreation and Leisure Preference Survey was used. The research instrument was modified from *The Needs Assessment for Adults with Developmental Disabilities* survey (See, Ellis, Spellman, & Cress, 1991). Validity was established by See et al., (1991), who developed and field tested their instrument with 60 aging adults with developmental disabilities. In addition to responding "yes" or "no" to 32 activities specified in the original questionnaire, the instrument was modified and asked each participant to indicate for each selection: the frequency of participation; preference of participating alone or with others; if with others, with whom; and "Yes" or "No" to does this person have a disability. Responses regarding frequency of participation were grouped into one of four categories; never, sometimes, weekly, and daily. Demographic information such as, age, gender, health status, place of residence, friends, and participation in community or school recreational programs were obtained.

insert survey instrument about here

Program developers from rural areas in south Mississippi were contacted to obtain permission to administer the survey in their school district. Surveys with a cover letter giving step by step instructions were mailed to the program developers to distribute to the classroom teachers of the participants.

In order to maintain strict confidentiality of the student, the classroom teacher or paraprofessional interviewed the student participant. The student-teacher relationship that was already established lent itself to a less clinical, more relaxed and natural atmosphere for the student to consider their preferences.

As the adolescent individual moves toward adulthood and their mature years, it is important to focus on the importance of lifelong leisure activities. These issues are not only important to the individual with mental retardation, but also to educators, administrators, service providers, and families. Individuals, not only need, to have a choice of the activities they prefer to engage in; but, also, the option of choosing their fellow participant or opting to engage in activities alone.

Recreation and leisure activities are an integral part of life. Quality of life, satisfaction with life, and health have been linked to recreation and leisure involvement.

Lifelong recreational and leisure enjoyment begins prior to a person's mature years. It is important to encourage and develop recreational and leisure interests with adolescent individuals. Expression of interest and choice by adolescent individuals are mandated by law. These are rights, not privileges. Every effort should be made to support adolescent individuals with mental retardation in the fulfillment of their right of expression of interest and choice in recreational and leisure activities.

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RECREATION AND LEISURE PREFERENCE SURVEY

Date of Birth: Month________ Day________ Year________

Male __________ Female___________

Student Eligibility: Circle one: mild moderate severe profound

Residence: Select one: own family____ residential facility____ other____

Is your health status good? Yes____ No____

Is there anything about your general health status or health/physical limitations that prohibits or limits recreation/leisure participatio

What are some activities you enjoy doing in your free time?__________________

What are some activities that you would like to participate in, but do not?__________________

Who usually participates in activities with you?__________________

Their relationship to you; check all that apply: ______ Relatives ______ Friends
______ Care takers/service providers

Name your best friend(s)__________________
Do they have disabilities?______ yes ______ no

Are the individuals who participate in activities with you from your educational/work setting?
______ yes ______ no ______ some of them

Do the individuals who participate in activities with you have disabilities?
______ yes ______ no ______ some of them

Do you particiapte in physical education at school?
______ yes ______ no
To what extent?__________________

Do you participate in Special Olympics?
______ yes ______ no ______ sometimes

Do you participate in city/community recreation programs, (ie. YMCA, fitness centers, and gym centers)?
______ yes ______ no
If yes, what__________________

Do you play team sports (ie., baseball, soccer, basketball)? What?__________________
and with whom? Check one. Only persons with disabilities _____ or persons without disabilities _____

Have you ever been "turned down from a community/city program/sport?
______ yes ______ no

After indicating activity preferences from the table on reverse side, please answer the following question.

What activities, not listed, do you like to participate in?__________________

Do you prefer to participate in these activities alone or \

If with others, with whom?__________________

ircle "Yes" or "No" to indicate preference.
ircle (1 - Never), (2 - Sometimes), (3 - Usually every week), or (4 - Daily) to indicate the frequency of preference participation.

Do you like to:			**How often do you participate?**				**Do you prefer to participate? Please check**		**With Whom?**	**Does this person/persons have a disability?**	
							Alone	**With Others**			
Watch television	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Play table games	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Exercise/Walk	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Attend plays	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Attend concerts	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Hang out with friends	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Paint/Art work	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Woodwork/Leatherwork	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Crafts	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Listen to music	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Read	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Photography	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Have a pet	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Fish	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Camp	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Shop	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Sing	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Dance	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Swim	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Bowl	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Cook	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Play cards	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Go to movies	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Go to art museums	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Eating out	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Traveling	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Activity center (game rooms)	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Team Sports	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Pen pal/write letters	Yes	No	1	2	3	4				Yes	No
Church activities	Yes	No	1	2						Yes	No

Sheryl R. Glausier 11/23/94

Cheryl H. Zaccagnini, Ed.D.
West Liberty State College
West Liberty, WV 26074

PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL SKILLS THAT ENHANCE PEER ACCEPTANCE FOR ADOLESCENT BOYS WITH BEHAVIOR DISORDERS IN RURAL MIDDLE SCHOOLS

Introduction

Deficits in social skills have impeded the successful placement of adolescents boys with behavior disorders in the regular classroom because they fail to meet the behavioral, academic, and social expectations required in less restrictive settings. Although social skills deficits are identified and training implemented for students with behavior disorders, the identified social skills may not be socially valid or critical skills required for peer acceptance. Recommended guidelines to establish the social validity and relevance of the social skills identified for training have been ignored. The result has been the inclusion of social skills in the curriculum merely because they may have face validity for the development of social competence (Williams, Walker, Holmes, Todis, & Fabre', 1989). Researchers suggest that if social skills are selected for training inclusion that are not considered valuable by the recipients of the training, the likelihood of their being functionally integrated into the students' behavioral repertoire and eventually entrapped are remote (Gresham, 1984; Williams, et al., 1989). The identification of functional social skills (Meadows, Neel, Parker, and Timo, 1991) that will increase a student's competence in the classroom with peers, teachers, and other adults is needed particularly for students with behavior disorders. Researchers are beginning to question the social validity of the targeted social skills identified by adults for instruction (Meadows, et al., 199l; Williams, et al., 1989).

Despite efforts at integration and increased training in social skills, students with behavior disorders are more frequently rejected and less accepted than their nondisabled peers (Zaragoza, Vaughn, & MacIntosh, 1991). According to Gresham (1990; 1988), social skills and peer acceptance are related to long-term adjustment outcomes for children and youth and those who are deficient in social skills/and or poorly accepted by peers have a higher incidence of school maladjustment, suspensions, expulsions, dropping out, delinquency, childhood psychopathology, and adult mental health disorders. Social skills training for students with behavior disorders has not resulted in increased social acceptance (Kauffman, 1989). Numerous studies have focused on the importance of social skills in school settings for students with behavior disorders (Gresham, 1990, 1988, 1983, 1982; Brockman, 1988; Foster & Ritchey, 1979; Meadows, et al., 199l; Sabornie & Beard, 1990; Zaragoza, et al., 199l).

Social Competence

The development of social behavior competencies is viewed by many researchers and teachers as prerequisites for success in regular/general education settings. Social competence has been related to social acceptance or rejection as measured by sociometric assessments that reflect a student's social status. Merrill (1993) discussed social skills as a subdomain of social competence, and defined them as specific behaviors used to respond in given social situations. Henley, Ramsey, and Algozzine (1993) describe the lack of social competence as one of the primary reasons that students with mild disabilities have difficulties in the regular/general education setting.

According to Bos and Vaughn (1994), one of the most discriminating characteristics of students with behavior problems is their lack of social competence. Students with behavior disorders are deficient not only in the acquisition of social skills, but also in their performance during interactions with others. The inability to build or maintain satisfactory relationships with peers and teachers is one characteristic of students with behavior disorders. The lack of social competence continues to be a problem even following social skills training in the educational setting for students with behavior disorders.

Validation of Social Skills

Typically, social skills that have been targeted for intervention are primarily identified by adults. Teacher-preferred skills include skills that facilitate academic performance and the absence of behaviors that challenge a teacher's authority. Peer-preferred skills, which are concerned primarily with peer-to-peer interactions, may be considered least important by teachers because such behaviors may interfere with effective classroom instruction (Gresham, 1990). Subjective evaluation has been suggested as a method for establishing the validity of social skills targeted for intervention by obtaining information from the students themselves and significant others. Despite the importance of social skills, the social skills that have been targeted for intervention may not be socially valid for students with behavior disorders (Meadows, et al., 1991). To have a maximum impact on student adjustment and ability to satisfactorily access specific social systems and networks, social skills curriculum should include skills that have been positively validated by teachers, peers, and students with behavior disorders (Williams, et al., 1989).

Adolescents and Social Skills

Many adolescents do not possess the necessary academic or social behaviors reflective of social competence (Zirpoli & Melloy, 1993). For students with behavior disorders, the label of SED/BD may contribute to negative peer and adult perceptions even when students engage in prosocial behaviors. Social skills training for adolescents is needed to maxamize the benefits of academic instruction, facilitate mainstreaming/inclusion efforts, increase peer and teacher acceptance, and improve prospects for post-school employment. Finally, social skills training is especially needed to increase the adolescent's interpersonal functioning and social competence that can assist the adolescent's capacity for school success, independent living, employment, and social support networks (Williams, et al., 1989). These authors stress the importance of developing a social skills curriculum that addresses both teacher and student preferences that are considered socially valid for teachers and students rather that only adult identified social skills.

Qualitative Research/Quantitative Component in Three Rural Middle Schools

Using qualitative research methods (participant observation and audiotaped in-depth interviews) with a quantitative component (standardized social skills rating instrument), perceptions of social skills that enhance peer acceptance for adolescent boys with behavior disorders were explored in three rural middle schools in West Virginia. The three middle schools were in their first year of the middle school concept in this school district as well as the first year of implementation of inclusive education. Nine adolescent boys in regular/general education, six adolescent boys with behavior disorders, three regular/general educators, and three special educators/BD served as the participants for this study. Each one was interviewed/audiotaped. Classroom observations in each setting were conducted and each participant completed a standardized social skills rating system developed by Gresham and Elliot (1990). The settings were rural middle schools with grades five through eight and the adolescent boys were same sex/age/grade level. All participation in this study was strictly voluntary in nature, with approval from the county school system, the school building principal, special and regular/general educators, and the special and regular/general education students and their parent(s) and /or guardian(s) as well as completion of signed Assent and Consent Forms approved by the University's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects. Qualitative research methods were designed and analyzed using a variety of resources including but not limited to Bogdan and Biklen, 1982; Hycner, 1985; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Peck and Furman, 1991; Spradley, 1979; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; and Yin, 1987.

The Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) consists of thirty items rating social skills that identify social behaviors that influence teacher-student relations, peer acceptance, and academic acceptance and is a standardized, norm referenced assessment scale that may be used at the preschool, elementary, or secondary levels. Gresham and Elliot (1990) have segmented the social skills items into cooperation, assertion, and self control domains on the teacher's form and included these and an empathy domain on the student form. Critical ratings from each participant were obtained and placed in a corresponding subdomain and analyzed for agreements and disagreements. Critical ratings were obtained to determine which social skills were identified as critical for functioning in the classroom and in relationships with others by the educators and students. The purpose of utilizing the SSRS was also to provide triangulation of the data in this study through another source of inquiry. Triangulation of the data is one of the most frequently cited methods for the validation of qualitative data by using multiple sources and methods.

Observational data were recorded using anecdotal field notes, descriptive field notes, and diagrams in both formal and informal observational settings during two to three classroom periods on different days and during different times during one regular semester schedule at each site. The critical characteristic of observational field notes is that they clearly separate objective descriptions of behavior from interpretations and judgements about the meaning of behavior (Peck, 1991). In-depth interviews were conducted following the observations. Interviews by ethnographers do not contain forced choices, but attempt to elicit accounts of the informant's point of view that also take into account the ethonographer's point of view (Tammivaara & Enright, 1986). Following each interview, the audiotapes were transcribed. The participants were asked to complete the Social Skills Rating System (Gresham & Elliot, 1990) last. Responses to the rating system provided a comparison of what the participants rated as critical social skills with what they actually answered in interviews and with what they did in the educational setting as observed by the researcher. A constant comparative method of data analysis was employed throughout the study with themes and domains developed into idea units and coded following Hycner's (1985) recommendation for reading and rereading the information and coded using Taylor and Bogdan's (1984) methods. Idea units were used to describe the participant's feelings, opinions, and perceptions about social skills and peer acceptance for adolescent boys with behavior disorders in rural settings. Although the research focused on social skills for adolescent boys with behavior disorders, related emerging themes and domains were identified for future analysis and implications. Intercoder reliability was determined to be 94.4% by independently placing 500 idea units into domains by a doctoral student using Yin's (1987) method for determining intercoder reliability. Any disagreements were discussed and resolved. The completed social skills ratings were checked by a doctoral student who was trained and certified in the administration and scoring of the SSRS. An agreement of 100% was obtained in scoring the Social Skills Rating System.

Results, Recommendations, and Implications

Recommendations for schools and teachers for identifying and training social skills and implications for future research were made to assist with having a maximum impact on the social, behavioral, and academic development of adolescent boys with behavior disorders in rural middle schools. Results indicated similarities and differences between adolescent boys' and teachers' perceptions of social skills that enhance peer acceptance. Discrepancies and similarities between adolescent boys and educators relative to the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) critically rated skills were identified. Teachers identified classroom rules, cooperation, and self-control as critical social skills. Adolescent boys agreed with the educators, but also identified assertion skills like interactions with peers or members of the opposite sex as critically important.

Emergent idea units within domains were identified from interviews relative to teachers' and adolescent boys' feelings, opinions, and perceptions about social skills. Interview results and emerging data included behaviors that get adolescent boys in trouble with peers, teacher expectations in the classroom, ways to get along with teachers, ways to fit in with peers, similarities and differences of adolescent boys with BD and their peers, consequences for inappropriate use of social skills, preconceptions about boys labeled BD, and reasons for inappropriate social skills.

Recommendations based on the triangulation of the data through the observational recordings, in-depth audiotaped interviews, and the Standardized Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) and ways to enhance peer acceptance for adolescent boys with behavior disorders in rural middle schools were identified. These included identification of socially valid peer-preferred skills which may maxamize training, performance, maintenance, and generalization of appropriate social skills; school suspension issues which involves the reevaluation of policies and frequency of suspensions resulting in hinderance of academics and participation in school activities; BD labeling which results in preconceived notions and attitude biases toward students with behavior disorders whether they have deficits in social skills or not; collaboration between educators in behavior/classroom management and academics; home and family issues which appears to influence the acquisition and performance of appropriate social skills as well as teachers having more empathy toward this situation and serving as models for all students; self-esteem or the lack of which often increase the high drop-out rate leading to the need for more positive interactions and successes for students with behavior disorders, and interactions with peers which this study indicated that little or any interactions opportunities were provided during the school day with nondisabled adolescent boys. Interestingly, adolescents with and without behavior disorders were similar in behaviors except a significant difference was for example, that all boys tell jokes, but unlike their nondisabled peers, the adolescent boys with behavior disorders have a problem distinguishing where, when, how, and with whom to perform these behaviors.

Implications for future research for the identification of socially valid skills leading to performance of appropriate social skills and increased peer acceptance for adolescent boys with behavior disorders included more qualitative research with semi-structured interviews since standardized social skills rating systems may not reveal peer-preferred skills. Other implications included more integrated social skills training methods with peers and between regular/general and special educators and; home and family issues for earlier prevention, identification and intervention; self perceptions of adolescents' perceptions of social skills in order to develop effective social skills curriculum and training methods; interactions and friendship patterns that indicate certain traits and characteristics that are acceptable by teachers and for students to get along with peers, and in teacher expectations and classrooms in special education and in mainstreamed and inclusive educational settings.

In summary, social skills that merely take into account an adult only view of social skills may identify teacher-preferred social skills, but may be irrelevant to adolescents with behavior disorders or their nondisabled peers which may hinder the acquisition and performance of valid social skills.

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Joel Lindsey Stafford
Lawton Public Schools
Lawton, Oklahoma

BUILDING BRIDGES: JOINING SPEECH/LANGUAGE SERVICES WITH CLASSROOM LEARNING

Before 1975, children with a handicap ranging from mental retardation to learning disabilities were either sent to private or state-operated instutitions, or imprisoned in their homes. With the enactment of PL 94-142, disabled children were assured of a free, appropriate public education regardless of the degree of severity of the handicap, as well as protecting the right of handicapped children and their parents in the decision-making process.

As private and public schools attempted to assure these children with special needs a free, appropriate education, the type of service provided gradually evolved. In the beginning, the format was addressed as "special education", since it was designed and implemented for those with "special" needs. The term "special" led school districts to establish special buildings where all handicapped children were taught. For awhile this appeared to be what PL 94-142 promised both children and their parents; yet there were those strong advocates of children's rights, who questioned whether this method of delivery of services was really equal to that of the services provided non-handicapped children in other buildings. This challenge led these advocates to question whether or not these children were being placed in the least restrictive environment (LRE).

These questions brought about a movement centered around "mainstreaming." School districts then decided that these "special needs" children could be assured of both an equal education and placement in their least restrictive environment by placing children in the normal flow of movement. It was obvious that children with severe degrees of disabilities would n't be successful in the regular classroom. As much as possible, children with disabilities began moving out of the self-contained classrooms into the regular classrooms.

Several of the disability areas, such as speech/language therapy and learning disabilities have also attempted to move toward the promise of PL 94-142. In both rural and urban school districts, speech/language services have a delivery model where a qualified therapist visits the school the child would naturally attend and then works with the child in a pull-out format. After visiting with the regular teacher, the therapist develops a schedule and then takes him or her to another room or space where the services are provided. This space could be either a designated room in the building or a hallway, janitor's closet, & auditorium. Not only is the space sometimes totally inappropriate, but the child is missing out on the learning experiences going on in the regular classroom. When this delivery model is carefully examined,

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the least restrictive environment required by PL 94-142 can be again questioned.

Every year the federal government, who provides the funding that assures a free, appropriate education for handicapped children, both questions and challenges school districts on the issue of providing the least restrictive environment for these children. As educators seek to determine what actually is the LRE, a new movement has emerged. There is a strong feeling that a collaborative model provides the best way of insuring that children can receive a quality education. There has been much debate as to whether collaboration will bring about inclusion. There is also much speculation as to whether all "special needs" children should be placed within regular classroom settings.

In a collaborative model, the special educator, such as the speech/language therapist works along side the regular classroom teacher to help all children have an appropriate education. Our school district, the Lawton Public Schools, chose to begin moving toward inclusion by asking the speech/language therapists and learning disabilities teachers to change their delivery of services, as much as possible. Therefore,I designed a service model that placed me in the regular classroom. The premise of the model is that the specialist and classroom teacher should no longer see themselves as seperate entities, but as essential parts of the mechanism, who have as their goal providing all children a quality education proven by performance on either standardized or criterion-based tests.

I've named this model-the Language Lab. When I began using this model, I approached teachers who already had children that I had previously pulled out for therapy and asked them if they would consider my providing the therapy in the classroom to all students. At the beginnning of the year when we must see to it that children are being seen, I arranged to provide the service in the room and allow the teacher to see how I could be of help not only to the students but herself or himself. Not every teacher approached was willing to let me enter. I saw myself as a very important member of the staff who could help all children become successfull in both oral and written language which is a part of the PASS program that has been mandated by the state legislature. I currently serve two elementary schools, and at present I'm providing this type service in two intermediate mentally handicapped classes, two primary mentally handicapped classes, one self-contained learning disabilities class, a kindergarten, transitional-first, a fourth-grade and a fifth-grade regular classroom.

I use as a basis for identifying students' specific needs the test results of the CELF-R which our district uses along with a language sample as the tool to determine if a child is elgible for language therapy. This normed, standardized test covers a wide age range. It also identifies specific areas of both receptive and expressive language processing skills. The Language Lab then presents remediation on the identified language processing skills by focusing on the normal curriculum presented in class. I then visit with the classroom teacher and find out what is being taught . I then create

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some type of language activity that will either introduce or review a concept. Usually the activity, whether it focuses on grammar or written expression, is presented in an interactive format where I and the classroom teacher work as a team. Usually the the format of the Language Lab consists of the following: (1) a springboard , an activity which sets the scene for the lesson and introduces the concept; (2) a warm-up activity, an opportunity for students to demonstrate their knowledge of a specific language skill; (3) brainstorming and/or role playing, neither are always necessary. I use brainstorming when I want the students to discocver the adjectives they already have in their own vocabulary.; (4) a wrap-up activity, anything that can help measure whether the language concept has been mastered; and (5) a challenge or carry-over activity, something that the classroom teacher can assign to the students to help show that what the specialist has taught applies to classroom learning.

At the present, I also deliver speech therapy using this model. On my caseload, I have a kindergarten-aged child whose IEP calls for goals centered around improving his articulation. I felt that the best service I could provide was to center his speech in a setting more conduisive to his age rather than simply pulling him out and working alone with him. In my time in the classroom, I've discovered other children with speech problems who have not yet been identified. I feel that if through the avenue of the Language Lab, I can provide remediation; then these children can be helped before ever being labeled and placed in special education.

With anything new, there will be rough spots that will have to be worked out just like glitches in a new computer program. In my own personal experience with using this model, I have had to work out six rough spots:

a. A class of twenty or more children can be more difficult to handle than a group of three or four in the therapy room.
b. Some teachers may see you as the music or physical education teacher and decide to work on lesson plans or grade papers rather than team teaching with you.
c. There are those teachers, when asked how you can help with their instruction, will tell you to do "your own thing."
d. There are teachers who most likely will borrow "your onw" ideas and use them later.
e. Your preseence in another teacher's room may appear to be a threat to his or her own teaching.
f. You may need to call on your own creativity to address a variety of different lab lessons that will meet the needs of both teachers and students.

After almost two years of using this model, both all students and their teachers have benefited from this style of delivery. Current testing of these children has shown that they are not only now more successful in their test scores but also in their grades. Several have so improved that they are no longer within special education. One child, who is not in special education yet in a classroom where I assist, said that since

I have been in her classroom helping teach language, she has been doing much better and is now making A's. Both of the principals who have allowed me to use the model are pleased with the speech/language therapist being a part of the regular classroom. Terry Martin, who is now retired, said, "This has worked very well because the classroom teachers and Mr. Stafford have worked very hard together to make it work. It has been very educational for all the students and has worked exceptionally well in our Special Education Classes." Jody Sherry, principal at Pioneer Park, writes: "Thanks for all your hard work with "all" our children. I'm really impressed with your work in the classroom. I hope it will continue." Tom Davis, a regular sixth-grade classroom teacher writes: "Excitement, interaction, and learning are created weekly as Mr. Stafford becomes a part of my sixth grade classroom. The identifed student begins to see other students have some of the same problems and also creates a more relaxed instructional environment giving the student a feeling of belonging. The students are always eager and receptive to his weekly visits. I am glad to see more mainstreaming with an active interaction from the specialist and the classroom teacher." Another teacher, Renee Harrop, who is using this model for the first time this year writes: "The use of inclusion in the classroom with the speech pathologist has been very beneficial. The students are exposed to his expertise of language and a different teaching style. All of the students are being reached due to the different modalities being used to teach English in this manner."

I believe that the effects of a collaborative model used in the Language Lab is best expressed by Solomon, the wisest man to ever live, when he wrote in Ecclesiastes 4:9: "Two are better than one because they have a good return for their work." Not only does this type model see that every disabled child is placed in the least restrictive environment-his or her classroom, but it gives every student the opportunity to benefit from two different teaching styles.

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Barbara L. Ludlow
Wilfred D. Wienke
Dept. of Special Education
West Virginia University
Morgantown, WV 26506

PREPARING TEACHER EDUCATORS FOR RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION: A LEADERSHIP TRAINING MODEL

Significance of the Personnel Needs

A decade after the passage of PL 94-142, the need for additional special educators continues to grow. During the 1987-88 year, the need rose to over 30,000 special educators (USDOE, 1989). It has been projected that an additional 9% of teachers will be needed in the next ten years, an increase of 6% over the last decade (CES, 1988). The supply-demand imbalance is particularly critical in rural areas . Smith and Lovett (1987) have argued that, because many school districts continue to experience shortages of special education teachers, increased numbers of special education teacher educator faculty positions in colleges and universities will be needed if personnel preparation programs are to address those shortages.

Unfortunately, the supply of new doctorates trained in special education has not been able to keep pace with the demand for new personnel to fill faculty positions and other leadership roles in teacher education. Smith and Lovett (1987) projected a 10 percent turnover rate of special education faculty in institutions of higher education by 1993 with an increasing rate of retirements after that year; and they predicted that over 300 new faculty will be required each year because of retirement alone beginning in 1990. Twenty-six additional college/university programs offering special education were identified in 1986 as compared to 1983 in the directory published by the Teacher Education Division (Blackhurst, et al., 1986). Sindelar and Taylor (1988) reported a steady number of announcements for special education positions in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* over a 13-year period with increases in more recent years. These findings suggest that the available pool of qualified leadership personnel in special education has not been sufficient to meet this need for teacher educators/scholars to implement existing and new teacher education programs.

At the same time, data on the supply of doctorates in special education in the *Digest of Educational Statistics* (1988) showed a sharply declining number of new special education doctorates awarded over the 10 year period. These data suggest that even if all the graduates had elected higher education positions, there would still not have been enough to meet the demand. Bunsen (1988) estimated that only 53% of persons with new doctoral degrees in special education took positions in higher education in the years 1980 to 1988. New doctorates are even less likely to take faculty positions in institutions of higher education in rural areas, where it can be more difficult to settle families, find employment for spouses, or adjust to life as a single person. If the data are accurately interpreted here, then the supply has fallen significantly short of the demand for new doctoral level special education leadership personnel in higher education and the problem is even more urgent for colleges and universities in rural areas.

Need for Improvement of Quality of Doctoral Training

There is also a need for improvement in the quality of training provided to prospective faculty members and other professional personnel in higher education special education. A study by Wienke, Platt & Iannaccone (1990) indicated that the following competencies are desirable in leadership personnel: (1) teaching and supervision in higher education, (2) inquiry and scholarship, (3) professional knowledge in special education, and (4) skills in technology as related to special education. Program quality in higher education is enhanced by proper education and experience as a teacher, along with appropriate opportunities to study and experience the delivery of teacher education.

Several authors have presented a compelling argument for the preparation of scholars and a foundation for research training and experiences in special education doctoral programs (Brady, et al., 1988; Gerber & Semmel, 1984; Prehm, 1980). Ducharme and Agne (1982) found that education faculty frequently have difficulty in academe because of a lack of either the desire or the ability to engage in scholarly activities, confirming an earlier finding by Guba and Clark (1978) that faculty in colleges of education generally have a low rate of scholarly productivity. And, a number of studies (Kasten, 1984) have shown that research and scholarship is closely coupled with the awarding of salary increases in higher education. Doctoral students must acquire and apply scientific inquiry skills in close relationship to their future professional responsibilities and tasks.

Quality research, teaching,supervision, and service are highly correlated to the amount, type, and quality of both historical and current knowledge that an individual has in the professional discipline. Mastery of current and emerging knowledge is critical for the special education teacher educator/scholars (Simpson, et. al, 1990; Wienke, et. al. 1990) As a hybrid of economic, medical, psychological and sociological studies of persons with disabilities, special education requires broader interdisciplinary study and understanding than other areas of education. Doctoral programs therefore must provide opportunities for students to acquire and demonstrate competency concerning critical knowledge of the field of special education and related areas.

Leadership personnel in special education are frequently faced with new challenges and opportunities involving emerging computer and telecommunications technologies. From applications in research and personnel preparation, to administration and instructional service delivery, professional technology skills appear to be highly desired competencies in special education leadership personnel (Wienke, et. al., 1990). Whether functioning in an electronically automated professional environment with a myriad of software packages and programs, or guiding the activities of pupils, researchers, teachers, or administrators in the field, it is essential that special education leadership personnel posess basic skills in microcomputer and distance education applications.

Design of the Project

The Department of Special Education at West Virginia University engaged in a three-year cycle of activities to revise its doctoral program and develop the teacher educator/scholar model of leadership personnel training outlined in this project proposal. At the Dean's request, the graduate faculty spent one year developing a Five-Year Plan for the doctoral program, based upon a review of the literature, contacts with professional colleagues at comparable universities, and review of catalogues and handbooks. During the following year, the department engaged in a self-study in response to the triennial review by the WVU Graduate Council. And, in the final year, a task force of three faculty members and one doctoral student translated recommendations from the larger group into the competency matrix that serves as the foundation of the new model. Thus, the program incorporates the most recent research and demonstration results, as outlined in the project needs statement, the description of program competencies, and the course syllabi. The doctoral program curriculum was designed to reflect the major roles of leadership personnel in each of the following areas:

Teaching/Supervision. Teaching courses and supervision of practicum experiences are two basic responsibilities of the teacher educator role; a high degree of competency is needed to ensure that teacher training programs prepare quality personnel (Simpson, et al., 1990). Teaching involves developing course content, preparing class materials, using a variety of instructional methods, and evaluating student learning and instructor effectiveness (Ingram & Blackhurst, 1975). Supervision involves structuring practicum experiences, observing teaching episodes, giving spoken and written feedback, and evaluating student performance and supervisor effectiveness (Markel, 1982).

Scholarship/Research. Scholarship is another central responsibility of the teacher educator role (Prehm, 1980; Rousseau, et al., 1976). Scholarship involves conducting and disseminating empirical, applied, and policy research in the education of individuals with disabilities, as well as in the education of special education teachers (Calder, et al.,1986; Gerber & Semmel, 1984). A broader concept of scholarship, however, includes inquiry as a way of reflecting and acting in all professional activity (Rose, et al.,1984; Tymitz-Wolf, 1984).

Service. Service is another traditional responsibility of the teacher educator. Service involves providing inservice workshops and other training for practicing professionals (Grosenick & McCarney, 1984), serving as a consultant to school systems and other agencies serving individuals with disabilities, chairing and serving on committees and task forces, participating in professional organizations, and collaborating in interagency efforts (Lowenbraun, 1990).

Professional Knowledge. Professional knowledge at an advanced level underlies all aspects of the teacher educator role. Advanced knowledge involves an understanding of the historical, social, and political foundations of special education and other disability services in the United States and other countries, current issues and trends, and analysis of existing policies and practices. Mastery of current and emerging knowledge is an essential characteristic of effective teacher educators in a rapidly changing field like special education (Simpson, et al., 1990; Wienke, et al., 1990).

Innovative Technologies. Emerging technologies involving the use of computers and telecommunications are rapidly changing teacher education today. Teacher educators must now be competent in the use of microcomputers for the development of course materials, computer-assisted instruction, data analysis, and personal scholarly productivity, as well as the use of video- and satellite-delivery systems for distance learning (Cartwright, 1984).

Organization of the Project

Recruitment. Project staff engage in the following activities related to recruitment:

1. distribution of brochures via mailings to colleges and universities in West Virginia and the surrounding region, as well as displaying them at state, regional, and national conferences in special education; and
2. advertisement of program availability via SpecialNet and newsletters of the various divisions of the Council for Exceptional Children and other professional organizations.

Admissions. The departmental Doctoral Admissions Committee engages in the following activities:

1. processing of all inquiries and applications by prospective doctoral students on a continuous basis using department/college/university criteria;
2. admission of applicants for doctoral study as regular or provisional students at least three (3) times per year (in Fall, Spring, and Summer), using department admissions criteria that include scores on the Miller's Analogy Test or Graduate Record Exam, a current vita, three letters of recommendation, and a personal statement;
3. assignment of newly admitted doctoral students to a member of the graduate faculty in special education, who will serve as a temporary advisor and assist the student in planning an initial program of studies.

Student Financial Assistance. Project staff engage in the following activities:

1. advising of prospective and current doctoral students about the variety of financial support available to graduate students at WVU;
2. assisting students in completing applications for financial assistance; and
3. seeking funds for student support from university, state and federal sources.

Development of Individual Program of Study. Each doctoral student in the project engages in the following activities to develop an individualized program of study leading to the doctoral degree:

1. selection of a major area advisor, minor area advisor, and at least three (3) additional faculty members to serve on the doctoral program committee;
2. development of a program of study approved by the committee, the department chairperson, and the college coordinator of graduate studies; the program of study meet the following college requirements:

a. a minimum of 24 credit hours in the major area
b. a minimum of 18 credit hours in the minor area
c. appropriate credit hours in the professional core (research design, foundations);

3. development of a plan for demonstrating special education program competencies in conjunction with the major advisor, and other members of the special education faculty
4. selection of elective courses to enhance knowledge in the doctoral student's area of specialization, or to extend knowledge into additional, complementary areas of specialization (e.g., student with a focus in Learning Disabilities may add to her/his knowledge through special topics seminars, independent study, or readings courses, or may add knowledge by taking courses/practicum experiences in Behavior Disorders).

Competency Documentation. Project faculty assist doctoral students in documenting that they have demonstrated all program competencies by means of the following activities:

1. development of guidelines, criteria, and recording forms to document doctoral student performance and/or products that may serve as evidence of acquisition of each doctoral program competency;
2. enrollment of doctoral students in required and elective courses and internships;
3. service as mentors for individual doctoral students in conducting research and professional development product activities or in completing service competencies;
4. design of independent study courses to allow doctoral students to pursue in-depth knowledge or skill acquisition in areas of individual interest; and
5. design of readings courses to provide doctoral students with additional exposure to important or emerging topics.

Career Development. Project faculty assist students in planning for a career as a teacher educator in special education by engaging in the following activities:

1. guiding doctoral students in defining career goals during the initial program interview;
2. assisting doctoral students in developing individualized programs of study that contribute to the achievement of career goals;
3. posting notices of job announcements from mailings and advertisements in The Chronicle of Higher Education;
4. helping doctoral students to match career goals and interests with available positions;
5. aiding doctoral students in preparing applications and resumes for positions; and
6. providing letters of reference to support applications submitted by doctoral students.

Creation of Research/Professional Development Products. Project staff, project faculty, and supporting faculty involve doctoral students in the creation of research and professional development products to support teacher education in special education by engaging in the following activities:

A. Research Products

1. designing empirical, applied, or policy research studies that investigate some aspect of teacher education on at least an annual basis;
2. securing approval from the WVU Human Subjects Review Committee;
3. identifying dependent and independent variables of interest;
4. developing procedures and/or instruments to collect data;
5. collecting and analyzing data; and
6. reporting results via spoken and written presentation formats.

Sample research activities include, but are not limited to: field validation of training program competencies, survey of recruitment and retention statistics in rural states, policy analysis of alternative certification practices, literature review of international developments in special education, or a comparison of effectiveness of distance learning and traditional courses.

B. Professional Development Products

1. identifying the need for products to support instruction or supervision in teacher education on at least an annual basis;

2. developing a prototype design for the product;
3. conducting a field test of the prototype;
4. revising the prototype from evaluation results;
5. packaging and producing the product; and
6. distributing the final version to various audiences.

Sample professional development activities include, but are not limited to: manuals for instructors for developing satellite courses, computer-assisted instructional modules to support special education courses, Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) materials for independent studies, student handbooks to explain certification and degree requirements, or videotapes and other audiovisual materials on content topics.

Admission to Candidacy. Graduate faculty in special education and other academic units assist doctoral students in meeting all department, college, and university requirementss:

1. a qualifying examination: the type of exam is jointly designed by the student and committee, and is written by the major and minor advisors, with assistance from other committee members, and may take any of the following forms:
   a. a formal written exam with no access to resources;
   b. a written take-home exam with full access to resources;
   c. activities to demonstrate specific program competencies (e.g., a course design, a research project, a manuscript); the exam is graded by all committee members;
2. a dissertation prospectus: the written proposal outlining the research is approved by the committee following a formal presentation by the student, and includes the following:
   a. outline of research purpose and questions;
   b. brief review of the literature; and
   c. description of research design and methodology.

Dissertation. Graduate faculty in special education and other academic units assist doctoral students in meeting all department, college, and university requirements for the dissertation:

1. approval of study by Human Subjects Review Committee;
2. collection and analysis of research data;
3. preparation of dissertation; and
4. oral defense of dissertation.

Induction. Project staff provide assistance to project graduates during their induction year as beginning faculty members in special education teacher education positions:

1. discussing with project graduates how to make contacts at a new institution, how to plan activities to achieve promotion and tenure, and other new faculty concerns;
2. providing project graduates with the names of contact persons in the regional area in which they will be located, who can provide assistance in learning state and local issues in special education;
3. scheduling a reunion of project staff, graduates, and current students at the annual conference of the Teacher Education of the Council for Exceptional Children, which is held each year in November; and
4. maintaining continuous telephone contact with project graduates as needed.

Coursework

All courses are offered at the advanced graduate level and many are restricted to students pursuing a doctoral degree. Each special education course includes content specific to topics and issues in rural special education service delivery and personnel preparation.

Major Area Coursework. Project staff will offer the following required courses:

SPED 470 Advanced Professional Knowledge: Special Education
SPED 471 College Teaching/Supervision: Special Education
SPED 472 Professional Writing/Grantwriting: Special Education

SPED 474 Research Analysis/Interpretation: Special Education
SPED 478 Higher Education Technology: Special Education
SPED 479 Current Issues/Trends: Special Education

Major Area Internships. Project staff will offer the following internships:
SPED 483 College Teaching Internship
SPED 484 College Supervision Internship
SPED 485 Research Internship

Major Area Elective Coursework. Graduate faculty in special education will also offer the following elective advanced graduate courses:
SPED 465 Administration/Supervision: Special Education
SPED 491 Advanced Topics: Collaborative Consultation
SPED 491 Advanced Topics: Developing Social Skills
SPED 491 Advanced Topics: Learning Strategies/Adolescents

Supporting Area Courses. Graduate faculty in other academic units will offer the following advanced graduate courses:
PSYC 311 Research Design and Data Analysis I
PSYC 312 Research Design and Data Analysis II
PSYC 315 Multivariate Analysis
EDPS 320 Introduction to Research
EDPS 423 Designing Single Case/Group Research
EDPS 450 Psychological Foundations of Learning
EDFN 300 Sociology of Education
EDFN 320 Philosophic Systems and Education
EDFN 340 History of American Education
EDFN 350 Comparative Education

Internship Experiences

This project is designed to prepare leadership personnel highly skilled in special education teacher preparation. By completing each of the competencies in this program, they have demonstrated a high level of knowledge and skill in performing each of the major roles typically required of entry-level faculty members. Briefly, graduates have: (1) taught several college courses, (2) developed a new course or substantially modified an existing course,(3) supervised student teaching or practicum experiences in their area of expertise, (4) demonstrated basic micro-computer/technology skills, (5) conducted research, (6) supervised beginning students in developing research competency, (7) authored or co-authored and submitted a grant application/proposal, (8) authored or co-authored manuscripts and submitted them for publication, (9) presented at state and national professional meetings, (10) provided inservice instruction for teachers and parents, and (11) served on several professional committees.

The doctoral program in special education involves demonstration of competencies in teaching, scholarship, and service, the three areas of productivity that must be demonstrated by faculty at most institutions of higher education for promotion and tenure through internship experiences, independent studies, or mentorships with faculty members. College teaching competencies are demonstrated through supervised teaching of any of a number of state-approved and NCATE-accredited undergraduate or graduate level special education courses in the doctoral student's area(s) of emphasis, either on campus or at several off-campus extension centers. Supervision competencies are demonstrated through assignment to supervise undergraduate student teachers in local schools or graduate practicum students in full-time placements, via an innovative on-the-job model, or through special summer programs. Research and professional writing competencies are demonstrated by working with one or more faculty members on personal research agendas, departmental evaluation programs, or grant projects supported by state and federal funds; professional presentations of

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research results also are made at state, regional, and national conferences and meetings. Service competencies are demonstrated through appointments to serve on committees in university activities or professional organizations, assisting faculty members with inservice training or other consultation activities for school districts and community disability agencies in West Virginia and the surrounding geographic area, or election as an officer in a local or regional chapter of a professional organization. Many of these activities require active involvement with pupils, families, teachers, and administrators in rural areas throughout West Virginia.

Impact of the Project to Date

Since the project was initiated in July 1992, the program has admitted five full-time students with project traineeship support and an additional 13 full-time on other sources of support and 8-10 other students participating on a part-time basis. Doctoral students complete the degree program atthe rate of 2-4 students per year and the fist students to complete the redesigned program areexpected to graduate in Summer 1995. Doctoral candidates have been drawn from West Virginia and the surrounding region as well as from places like New York and New Jersey and many of these individuals have had teaching experience in rural special education. Over the five years of the project it is estimated that 20-25 students will complete their doctorates in special education. This estimate is based on a combination of full time and part time students, estimating that full time students will require three (3) years to complete the course of study if they have the desired teaching experience and special education background prior to entering the program. All prior doctoral program graduates who have desired positions in higher education have secured and successfully maintained such employment and quite a few now work in rural areas. The three most recent graduates have all taken positions in special education teacher education at fine institutions, namely, Edinboro University of Pennsylvania, Northeastern University of Illinois, and Western Carolina University. As such, they are having a positive impact on the critical need for addional rural special educators. All had multiple opportunities for employment in higher education, reportedly based on the strength of their preparation and experience. This project and the leadership training program are anticipated to have a significant impact on the suppy of new teacher educator/scholars to fill existing and additional positions at colleges and universities around the country.

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Michael J. Delaney
Billie Jo Clausen
Whirling Rainbow Society
Rural Route 2, Box 28
Woodbine, Iowa 51579

"WHEN YOU SAY ALL, YOU REALLY DON'T MEAN THIS KID!!!!"
YES, WE REALLY DO MEAN ALL KIDS...

Students with Behavioral Challenges are at Extreme Risk for Isolation

In our work as consultants to support students with behavioral challenges in inclusive schools, their homes, and communities, we often are met with a challenge that is thrown forth with certainty and great conviction: *"When you say all, you really don't mean this kid!!!!"* We respond that of course, we really do mean all kids - even "those" kids with behavioral challenges. After our response, the body language and the faces of those who still believe separate places are necessary for students with behavioral challenges change to arms cross high on chests, and a countenance of defensiveness abounds. Often opponents (Fuchs and Fuchs, 19[illegible]95; and Shanker, 1994-95) of inclusion and even some in favor (Grebenstein Jr., 19[illegible]95) of inclusion, list students with behavioral challenges, disorders and/or problems as primary examples of children for whom inclusion cannot work.

Furthermore, the assessments, local school rules, state special education rules and established policies and procedures, including the nature of the "placements" listed on individual education plan (I.E.P.) forms, promote and encourage placement in more restrictive environments. These attitudes, assessment strategies, policies and procedures combine to effectively maintain a "continuum of placements" which for students who are identified and labeled as behaviorally challenged, rarely begin in inclusive settings, and end in increasingly separate, isolated and contrived environments.

The dilemma this creates for educators and families is that the children that most need to learn appropriate behaviors to go with the flow of everyday life end up being the same children that are most removed from that flow. Everyday, real places are, in schools, the general education classrooms, hallways, playgrounds, cafeterias, libraries, and gymnasiums. And how can children learn to go with the flow if they are rarely, or never in the flow? For the purpose of this article, we would prefer to focus our energy on what we can do to support children with behavioral challenges in stigma-free, integrated general education environments, in loving homes and communities, and discuss why it is important to do so.

When those with the power to do so place harmful labels on a child, then deny that child participation or access to services in general education environments, they are at great risk of of inadvertently communicating to that child, and all around them, the following messages:

- ✔ you do not belong with the rest of us and are in need of external controls that can only be provided by specialists (not generally found in real community settings);

- ✔ you have little or no chance of ever working with your typical adult peers in real jobs, under normalized adult management; and,

- ✔ you have little or no ability or chance of forming meaningful relationships with peers and other community members.

The practices of labeling students, and subsequently removing them from natural environments, undermine the importance of relationships and deprive the students of a meaningful quality of life readily available everyday in the school community. Furthermore, the students who have difficulty expressing emotion and handling frustrations are placed with other students who often lack the same skills, thus resulting in the removal of naturally occurring opportunities for interaction with students that can be good friends, and assist them in becoming true members in general education classrooms. Oftentimes, a general education student asserting "hey, stop that, we don't do that here" is all it takes to keep another student on track.

Moreover, there is nothing inherently wrong with the student whose behavior is hyperactive, compulsive, indicative of attention-deficit, or stereotypic. What may be wrong is how others, educators and family members, are choosing to react to that student, combined with an inability to determine what skills to teach. Oftentimes, when a student with a behavioral challenge, the tendency is to react in punishing ways. These reactions can be understood from the viewpoint that children who were punished, even abused, as a primary disciplinary strategy may grow up to be teachers, principals, parents and care givers. In turn, they utilize punishing tactics with the children to whom their care and education is entrusted. These grown[illegible] victims, along with their peers, have a tendency to create situations of victimization, such as consequences that include time out, "paddling", yelling, suspension, expulsion and removal to more restrictive and increasingly isolated settings. Adults can make a different choice and consciously seek alternatives to punishing strategies. If the need for positive supports is understood, then the desire for change can be manifested in learning new strategies and in reorganizing the way we operate schools and support families. Changing from punishing strategies to positive, supportive methods is hard work, and takes a dedication and commitment to the change process and a belief in the inherent value of each child.

If educators can work together to teach students how to adapt, be redirected, and seek support in heterogeneous, complex environments and to be aware of natural cues, supports, corrections and reinforcers - that student can indeed learn to survive in society. It is our responsibility to work together to help realize positive supports in inclusive, general education environments and loving homes for every child who needs them.

Inclusive general education environments also need to be places that are effective in teaching children. There is a host of evidence demonstrating that schools need to carefully analyze what and how they are teaching students, as well as their own beliefs about students, in order to be effective. The following represents some strategies, but not all, that can help schools be more effective.

Collaboration to Create Schools that Work for All Kids

An initial focus is to create schools and homes which can accommodate and support all children to learn and to grow. Teaching strategies that work include a myriad of

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methods (e.g., cooperative learning, integrated curriculum, whole language, thematic units, independent research projects, etc.) which support diverse learners. These schools would look very different than traditional classrooms which place students in rows and teach with textbooks and worksheets. Educators know much more about teaching students in ways that challenge and excite them to explore new and effective ways of learning. It's long past time to implement these strategies (the interested reader is referred to Wood, 1992; Glasser, 1990), and support all staff in schools, through meaningful inservice to learn them.

Schools that are effective for all kids find that labels for teachers, students and classrooms have no place in schools where diversity is embraced and celebrated. When labels are present for students, teachers or classrooms, separation and stigmatization occur. The practice of labeling often runs counter to building and district mission statements that promote understanding and acceptance among all learners. The removal of labels is a step schools can take towards becoming the best places they can be for all children. When these labels have been successfully removed, educators and parents start operating under the same umbrella of a unified educational system, and the passing of blame and responsibility becomes moot.

For example, rarely, if ever, in all the technical assistance requests concerning including students with behavioral challenges that we've responded to, were the issues exclusively kid issues. All too frequently, the underlying issue was the inability of the adults to work together when confronted with the stress and difficulty of the situation. A spirit of collaboration needs to abound which creates effective teams with parents as equal team members. The skills necessary to team and problem solve need to be taught to teachers, administrators, family members and students. The focus of education has too long been on teaching everyone how to compete; it's time to strive for working partnerships at school and at home.

Since schools have students for a limited time, educators and parents need to make sure that what is taught is relevant and how it is taught is exciting and appealing to students with differing abilities, gifts, talents and learning preferences. Teaching students how to get along with and work with others (people skills), complete [illegible] in a timely way, show up on time and ready for class, take pride in their work (work ethic), and take responsibility for themselves and their behavior are all skills that are essential for success in life. When students are taught in nontraditional formats, they are allowed and encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and become allies in the educational process. The classroom teacher can become an advocate to learning and act as coach, guiding the learning process, facilitating relationships and mediating problem solving. Parents giving time to schools as volunteers can assist teachers to be more available to students, as well as demonstrating that partnerships exist between adults.

Finally, additional skills that need to be addressed are social skills and the development of emotional and linguistic literacy. Students need to be taught how to develop and maintain relationships, identify and express emotions, and articulate via spoken and written words their thoughts and feelings. There is a strong correlation between the increased ability to express oneself in a meaningful way and be understood by a caring friend to the decreased need to act out one's frustration in a damaging way. Teaching mediation skills to students and turning over dispute resolution in hallways and on playgrounds to teams of trained student mediators has been highly effective in improving school climate, and developing schools that accommodate and work for all kids.

Useful Assessment & Teaching Replacement Behavior

When behavior is indeed a concern for a student and for those people who love and care about that student, educators and parents need to have assessment tools to determine both the cause of the behavior, and the appropriate replacement behaviors that will meet the same need for that student in an appropriate way. Two approaches we would like to address here are functional analysis and quality of life assessment.

Good detective work is necessary to be able to understand what the function(s) of the behavior is, what need(s) it is meeting, and what its purpose(s) may be. Functional analysis is the assessment process that can be utilized to carefully, thoughtfully and thoroughly analyze behavior for its possible function(s). More specifically, functional analysis examines challenging behaviors in its ecological context in an attempt to detect how it varies across conditions and contingencies. Without such an analysis, whatever treatment procedures educators and parents use will likely become problematic. Once this analysis is complete, replacement behaviors can be identified and behavioral support plans that will be meaningful for the student, who is currently meeting needs through challenging behavior, implemented. It is our firm belief that functional analysis as a strategy needs to be taught, understood, and implemented by all who are supporting children with behavioral challenges (the interested reader is referred to O'Neill, et al. 1990).

The behavioral plan that results from a careful functional analysis will address teaching replacement behaviors that meet the same need in a more effective, efficient manner that is also socially appropriate. In this way, the student is supported to become more skilled at meeting his or her needs in ways that will benefit him or her lifelong.

An effective assessment within the functional analysis process is the quality of life assessment. Why would professionals and family members supporting students who are exhibiting behavioral challenges want to assess the student's quality of life? What is the correlation between a students quality of life, and their behavior? There is a direct correlation, for all of us, between our quality of life and our behavior. Observe someone who receives a "bounced check" notice in the mail, and responds by swearing and stating that the bank must be wrong. Observe someone, who after putting money in a pop machine only to find out it is not working and no pop comes out, kicks or hits the machine. These are examples of how our life is negatively impacted, and how we often respond with measurable and observable behaviors that we might not want to use as examples of our competence to deal with life's issues.

Through quality of life assessment, we carefully examine how a student's scores in the areas of meaningful relationships (interactions and friendships with others), responsibility (independence), discriminating and selecting from available choices, and accessing and participating in a variety of places and activities. This assessment also seeks to determine if a child has the above mentioned parameters that are similar to their age-appropriate, typical peers. The scores are then subjected to a discrepancy analysis. There oftentimes are such wide differences between expectations and opportunities for a child who is acting out behaviorally and his or her peers, that an action plan needs to be developed to minimized the differences. As the quality of life improves through the supports provided and changes made, immediate results in the form of positive behavior changes are seen. Processes, such as PATH and MAPS (Falvey, et al.1994), are valuable means to help groups of people creatively plan much improved quality of lives for students, especially when a group

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needs help to emerge from the confines of special education entrapments.

Taking a thorough look at quality of life issues can also benefit parents and professionals who may need to make some improvements in their own life that may subsequently benefit their partners and children.

Conclusion: A Call for Change & Commitment to Work Together

We must work to eliminate the belief that separate places are necessary for anyone, and work diligently on learning the strategies necessary to support everyone in community. This may require many of us who are involved with children who exhibit challenging behaviors, to change our own behavior, to use meaningful testing and teaching methods, and to work together.

The authors of this review are not trying to oversimplify complex challenges. We understand that some children have been hurt so badly, they may need a place to heal. Nevertheless, this difficult decision should only be made when educators and parents have applied the best technology available. If they have done so, they can make this decision with confidence, and also will have developed a plan to return the child to his or her community. Upon the child's return, we need to ensure that the parents and teachers he or she returns to have the technology to work together to support him or her in positive and beneficial ways.

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Dr. Clark E. Gardener
Associate Professor of Education
Chadron State College
Chadron, Nebraska

Hello Out There! The Art of Teaching by Television

Many say that teaching is an art and that if you know how to teach, you can teach over any system. Although there is some truth to the idea that one who is a teacher could teach by various methods, the art of teaching by television requires changes to your format.

Studies conducted by Cyrs and Smith (1988) and Albright (1988) have indicated that there are few formal or informal programs that have been developed to help increase the effectiveness of instruction by television. With the increased use of various types of distance learning technology, it would appear that instructors using the technology would appreciate learning more about how to teach effectively using distance learning technology.

According to Cyrs and Smith (1990), the following deficiencies have been identified:

1. Technical difficulties. Both audio and video.
2. Poor course organization. Traditionally taught courses were simply replicated in front of a TV camera.
3. Talking heads. The instructor talked continually on camera. Few and/or inadequate visuals were used. Minimal or no student involvement was observed.
4. Poor and uncorrelated handouts. The use of handouts is often a last minute thought. When used, they usually present a very general outline which is difficult to follow and requires extensive note copying.
5. Poor presentation skills. Presentations are often barely audible and at times inarticulate.
6. A review of satellite instruction (Albright, 1988) noted that "...there were great variations in quality from one course to another...much of the instruction was quite uninspired...boring...there was also a pathetic under utilization of the capabilities of the medium..." (p.3)

Therefore, a need existed for helping instructors teaching by television or other technologies.

Cyrs and Smith (1990) have identified eight teaching/training components that were critical for teleclassroom instruction. The components were:

1. Telecourse organization.
2. Presenting a positive image on television.
3. Selection and design of visuals for television teaching.
4. Design of Interactive Study Guides.
5. Verbal presentation skills for teleclass teaching.
6. Questioning strategies for effective interaction.
7. Packaging telecourses for self-directed study.
8. Consumer assessment of teleclass teaching effectiveness. (p.4)

Seven of the components will be addressed further in this report.

Effective organization of telecourses requires the instructor to be a good planner and organizer. The amount of time necessary to prepare for a television course is much greater than preparing for the normal self-contained classroom. (Cyrs and Smith, 1990).

One of the major changes in teaching by television is that almost all of the information needs to be shared visually. To assist in making your lesson more visual, you will be using more overhead transparencies, computer graphics, or any other materials that the students will be able to see. (Cyrs and Smith, 1990).

Also, you will be working with several people as you develop your lesson. The number of people you may be associated with depends upon the type of television system you are working with. Some systems are vary elaborate with camera persons and production personnel, while other television systems are manned and controlled by the instructor with the help of a technician to aid in any audio or visual technicalities that may arise.

One of the more effective means of organizing and planning for your telelecture is to use the telelesson plan (Appendix a). The telelesson plan allows you to make an outline of your presentation as well as assisting you in determining what will be shown on the television screen(s) at the remote site(s). There is also a place for production notes which may involve camera movement or other areas of concern. (Cyrs, 1992, p. 9.13)

The last section of the telelesson plan is one of the most important parts of the lesson as far as the author is concerned. The interactive study guide (ISG) allows the student the opportunity to be watching the screen and to listen more intently to the instructor. The interactive study guide is a visual picture of the lesson being taught. In many ways, it could be thought of as a web of all or part of the lesson and concepts being addressed. (Cyrs, 1992, p. 9.13)

Certainly there are other considerations to address as you prepare to teach by television. You most certainly want to present a positive image to your audience. You may want to practice talking into a camera by practicing in front of a mirror, deciding how to project a pleasant image, practice enunciation, pronunciation, etc., and determine other aides that one may use to catch the students attention. For example, Dr. Cyrs often uses various types of caps to capture the students attention. An important component is to have a sense of humor and to use humor to assist your telelecture. That does not mean you have to be a stand-up comedian, but it helps to break any tension, particularly at the beginning of the semester. Your students will respond better over the television knowing that you can relate to them. (Cyrs and Smith, 1990).

In designing graphics, transparencies, or other visual materials, it is important that they be large enough to be seen easily over the television at the receiving site(s). As a general rule, the graphics should conform to television standards which is a 3X4 aspect ratio of three units high by four units in width. All graphics should have a center of focus and have a sense of balance of equilibrium. Key points should be emphasized by the use of arrows, underlining, color or other means. "As you prepare your telelecture, look for action verbs which imply motion, adjectives that can be visualized, and key words that need to be reinforced visually." (Cyrs, 1992). The action verbs and adjectives will assist in the development of the interactive study guides for the students.

The interactive study guide (ISG) allows the student to listen more intently to whatever the instructor is saying and also decreases the amount of note taking the students must do. Additionally, the ISG assists the students in noting the important concepts and, often, the relationships between the various concepts that are being discussed. The ISG may consist of fill-in-the-blank sentences, pictures, webs, graphs, carts or cartoons. The ISG that are sent to the students have the display that would be shown on the television with missing components for them to fill in. Next to the display, leave room for notes concerning the topic addressed. (Appendix b). (Cyrs, 1992, p. 7.3).

Cyrs (1992) lists the following as attributes of the interactive study guide:

- Should be highly structured.
- Should be highly visualized.
- Should be numbered.
- Should help notetaking.
- Helps students review.
- Learning management tool.
- Assists during and after class.

(Cyrs, 1992, p. 10.1.5-10.1.6)

Another important aspect of teaching by live or interactive television is to maximize the involvement of the students at the remote site(s). Usually the instructor will need to initialize the involvement and participation of the students at the remote site(s) by asking thought provoking questions or by assigning projects that the students at the distant site(s) have to demonstrate or explain. We want the student at the remote site involved in some type of interaction at least thirty percent of the time. The interaction may be between students, between students at the different sites, between students and instructor, or between the student and the media. Cyrs (1992) has listed several interactive learning activities which can be used to involve students at remote sites. (Cyrs, 1992).

Teaching by television or by any method should require the instructor to be enthusiastic. To be enthusiastic a teacher needs to enjoy teaching, enjoy working with students, and enjoy working in your subject area.

Other tips for teleteaching follow:

- Make a list of students at all sites and send them to the students to help make your class one.
- Practice using the equipment prior to your first class.
- If you have a student in your class who has taken a telecourse before, let s/he switch cameras for you.
- Don't be afraid to make a mistake. We are all human.
- If possible, teach a lesson from a remote site.
- Get to know your students and personalize comments.
- Don't be afraid of silence. Students often need time to respond.

Cyrs and Smith (1990) point out the following suggestions for your telelecture:

1. Don't eat anything with cholesterol within twelve hours before you speak. Cholesterol causes cottonmouth. (Ostendorf, 1988)
2. Have a glass of cooled water, without ice, within reach. Ice will rattle on camera and cause a distraction.
3. Have hard candy available in case you do get cottonmouth.
4. Have extra non-permanent felt tip pens available in case one dries out while writing.
5. Have several dry marker pens available if you use the dry marker board.

Locatis and Atkinson (1984) point out these ways to put your best foot forward:

- Be poised and confident; use a positive approach.
- Excite interest by speaking of things that directly reach the experiences of the viewer.
- Show warmth, friendliness and sincerity.
- Tell the learners that the subject of instruction is important.
- Present reasons why the subject is important.
- Arrange for external rewards.
- Ensure that the learners experience success and accomplishment.
- Pair subject matter with things that are attractive to students.
- Introduce a discrepant, unexplained, or unfamiliar event.
- Model interest and positive attitudes toward the subject.

For those who have not taught by television, remember that it will be more time consuming. To assist in your first endeavor, it is suggested that you do have training on how to teach by television. Not only is training on how to prepare a telelecture important, but it is also suggested that any training on how to teach will be beneficial.

Watch other instructors use the system. You may pick up pointers on how to prepare and give your telelecture. Even if you do not agree with that instructor's methods, you are learning more about what will and will not work in your telelecture.

Also, if at all possible, start with a small class size. Having several sites with a large number of students is very frustrating for your first attempt.

The best way to make your telelecture better is to practice, practice, practice. With practice you will begin to personalize your telelecture to meet your particular style.

Teaching by television can be very rewarding and exciting. Be patient not only with yourself but sometimes with the equipment or technology. There will be technical difficulties that you can not do anything about. Just smile and say, "Hello out there! Is anybody watching?"

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Rebecca Newcom Belcher
New Mexico State University
Gadsden Independent Schools
Las Cruces, New Mexico

ABSTRACT

Recently, a great deal of discussion and controversy has been generated regarding fully inclusive education for students with disabilities. Proponents of inclusive education have questioned the effectiveness of pull-out programs and a dual system of education. The present study is an effort to assess the knowledge and acceptance level of fully inclusive education of teachers of special education and general education, and administrators within the rural, culturally, and linguistically diverse state of New Mexico. Inclusive education implementation within a rural state will, of necessity, begin with educators and administrators, therefore their knowledge and acceptance level of this philosophy will be of prime concern. In response to this concern, the present project was undertaken to determine the knowledge and acceptance level of these professionals. Sixty professionals in attendance at the February, 1993 New Mexico's Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) State Conference in Albuquerque, New Mexico were surveyed during a presentation on Inclusive Education. The results of the present study indicate that while the majority of professionals are generally supportive of inclusive education, a small percentage 7-15%, are consistently nonsupportive on all items with considerable disagreement on nine items.

OPINIONS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: A SURVEY OF NEW MEXICO TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Recently, a great deal of discussion and controversy has been generated regarding fully inclusive education of students with disabilities. Proponents of inclusive education have questioned the effectiveness of pull-out programs and a dual system of education. In general, proponents of inclusive education cited the unnecessary segregation and labeling of children combined with the ineffective practice of mainstreaming, which splinters a student's academic and social life, as justification for removing the current dual system (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1992).

The present study was an effort to assess the knowledge and acceptance level of fully inclusive education by teachers of special and general education, and administrators within the rural, culturally and linguistically diverse State of New Mexico. While this philosophy has gained widespread support, relatively little attention has been paid to its implementation within an isolated, rural, and relatively economically poor state. Implementation of inclusive education within a rural state will, of necessity, begin with educators and administrators, therefore their knowledge and acceptance level of this philosophy will be of prime concern. The present project was undertaken, in response to this concern, to determine the knowledge and acceptance level of these professionals.

Introduction

Congress stated during research for the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (IDEA), that there were over 8 million children with disabilities in the United States and that more than one half of them did not receive appropriate educational services. In addition, state and local educational agencies' financial resources were inadequate to meet the special education needs of children with disabilities. The purpose of IDEA was to ensure that all children with disabilities had access to a free appropriate public education (FAPE) which included special education and related services as needed by the child [20 USC Section 1400(b)(1-8)(c)].

Regular Education Initiative (REI)

A reform movement, whose roots were within special education, designed to provide a FAPE for all children was the Regular Education Initiative or REI (York, Vandercook, MacDonald, Heise-Neff, & Caughey, 1992). The REI provided instructional services for children with disabilities delivered in the regular classroom setting. The REI leaders had several distinguishable goals. The first goal was to merge special and general education into one system. The second goal was to increase dramatically the number of students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms using full-time mainstreaming across the continuum. The third goal was to strengthen the academic achievement of students with mild and moderate disabilities in addition to underachievers (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Fuchs and Fuchs (1994) found that REI supporters generated tactics to restructure general and special education while moving greater numbers of students with disabilities into general education. The first tactics involved acquiring waivers from state and federal rules and regulations for restructuring the use of special education resources. Another tactic was to modify the nature of the continuum of services generally advocated in special education to determine least restrictive educational placement of students with disabilities. The elimination of the bottom (homebound, residential placement) and the near-top (resource rooms) of the continuum was advocated by REI proponents. Finally, it was proposed that large-scale mainstreaming would be accomplished best by eliminating the near-top of the continuum. To succeed at large-scale mainstreaming the general education classrooms had to become more academically and socially responsive settings for students with disabilities. This was first accomplished by individualizing instruction for all students, and secondly by developing cooperative learning. The advocates of REI were reluctant to alienate special education teachers and administrators. Despite calls for waivers, modifications of the continuum of services, reorganization of general education classrooms, most REI reforms did not advocate an end to special education. Special Education teachers were to become co-teachers with the general education staff (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Based upon the latest reports from the Carnegie Council, the Holmes Group, the National Commission on Excellence in Education, and the National Governors' Association report, the tactics advocated by REI seemed consistent with the findings of these reports. Therefore, it was assumed that general education would welcome the REI, but general education was uninterested in the REI (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Inclusion

An outgrowth of the REI was the Full Inclusion movement. Inclusion, inclusive schooling, inclusive education were all terms of the movement to educate all children in general education (York, et al., 1992). Increasingly, special education reform was symbolized by the term inclusive schools. It meant decentralization of power and the concomitant empowerment of teachers and building-level administrators, a fundamental reorganization of the teaching and learning process through innovations like cooperative learning and thematic teaching, and the redefinition of professional relationships within buildings (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Based on the extensive research and the experiences of Pearpoint, Forest, & Snow (1992), inclusive education came to mean for them children being educated in heterogeneous, age-appropriate classroom, school and community environments which maximized the social development of everyone. The vision of full inclusion was based on the belief that all individuals had the right and the dignity to achieve their potential within society. A fully inclusive school valued friendships and diversity as significant outcomes of schooling. Skills and values essential to successful participation in a diverse, integrated society were acquired during an individual's time in school. A school which fully included all members of the school community fostered interdependence, respected and valued diversity, and taught the skills necessary to bring out the best in everyone. Full inclusion, through circles of support, maps, and friendship, nourished success through interdependence and collaboration (Pearpoint, Forest, & Snow 1992).

The growing impetus for inclusive education was found in the following statistics which described special education students who were generally classified as mildly or moderately disabled and generally mainstreamed into the general education classroom for part or all of the school day. Only 57% of students in special education graduate with either a diploma or a certificate of graduation; 12% of youth with disabilities have been arrested at some time in their lives, as compared with 8% in the general population; only 13.4% of all youth with disabilities, aged 15 to 20, are living independently up to two years after leaving secondary school as compared to 33.2% of the general post-secondary school population; and only 49% of out-of-school youth with disabilities aged 15-20 are employed between 1 and 2 years after high school (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1992).

Many proponents of inclusion were in favor of abolishing special education and the continuum of services. Pearpoint et al., (1992) proponents of eliminating the continuum, were quick to point out that while they wish to see an end to special education teachers and students, they are not advocating dumping or moving children with disabilities into general education classrooms without appropriate support. Specialists of all types would follow the children into the mainstream, where services would be available to all students. In contrast to inclusion's focus on socialization skills, attitude change, and positive peer relations, REI advocates' primary concern was to strengthen the academic performance of students with disabilities and those at risk for school failure (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Top-down educational reforms of the past have fallen short of the goal of improving the learning of New Mexico's students. Recent initiatives by the New Mexico State Legislature and the State Board of Education supported and encouraged school reform which were developed by the local community , e.g., site based management. The New Mexico State Department of Education recently passed *Standards for Excellence* which allowed schools to develop essential outcomes for all students and it provided a framework for each school to achieve individual state accreditation (New Mexico State Department of Education, 1991). The State Department of Education's Administrative Policy on Full Inclusion (1991) was as follows:

> The New Mexico State Department of Education believes that all students must be educated in school environments which fully include rather than exclude them. School environments include all curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular programs and activities. Full inclusion means that all children must be educated in supported, heterogeneous age-appropriate, natural, child-focused classrooms, school and community environments for the purpose of preparing them for full participation in our diverse and integrated society. The New Mexico State Department of Education supports, encourages and will facilitate emerging local practices and creative utilization of resources which address the full inclusion of all children in the local school and community. (p. 2)

Because the New Mexico State Department of Education supported inclusion, each school in New Mexico was challenged to adopt and implement practices which promote inclusion. The New Mexico State Department of Education recognized that the values and beliefs associated with inclusive education cannot be mandated. Consequently, it was the administrative policy of the New Mexico State Department of Education to support, influence, encourage, suggest and guide the local efforts of schools to evaluate and assess its values and beliefs about learning, children, and the school.

This current study was designed to survey New Mexico's educators and administrators on the knowledge and acceptance level of inclusive education. Based on the impetus from New Mexico's State Department of Education for providing inclusive education, the purpose of this study was to explore issues related to the value of New Mexico's State Department of Education campaign for inclusive education.

METHOD

Subjects

Sixty professionals in attendance at the February 1993 New Mexico's Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) State Conference in Albuquerque, New Mexico were surveyed during a presentation by one of the authors on Inclusive Education. Of these 60 teachers, 66% or 39 teachers responded to questions regarding number of years of teaching experience, current position, and grade level taught. Thirty-nine percent or 15 of the teachers had taught from 1 to 5 years, 21% or 9 had taught from 6 to 10 years, 25% or 10 had taught from 11 to 15 years and 15% or 5 had taught from 16 to 20 years with a mean number of years of experience of 8.28 years. Of the 39 professionals 5% (3) were currently in administration, 69% (26) were special education teachers, 19% (7) were in general education, and 7% (3) were in related services. 8% (3) of the professionals served at the preschool level, 62% (24) served at the elementary level, while 30% (12) were in secondary.

Instrument

A survey questionnaire, based on the research of Kennedy (1990) into Regular Education Initiative (REI), was modified for inclusive education specifically for this study. The instrument contained 22 items designed to measure professional's attitudes toward certain underlying assumptions or views of inclusive education proponents. A sample item of the former was "Students in special education can be educated in a regular classroom with assistance from the special education department". A sample of the latter type of item was "The skills needed to teach mildly disabled and nondisabled students are essentially the same". The professionals in attendance responded to each item on a 5-point Likert scale, from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Procedure

Each professional was handed a survey instrument upon entering the workshop session on Inclusive Education. Subjects were asked to return the survey by the end of the session or by mail within 4 weeks. After approximately 4 weeks from the return date, each subject who had not responded was contacted again, and asked to complete and return the survey. Sixty-six percent, or 39, of the 60 professional in attendance completed the survey.

RESULTS

Summary statistics for each survey item are presented in Appendix A. The percentile of responses for each item are ranked from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

As presented in Appendix A, the professionals' responses on a majority of the items were in support of inclusive education. The 9 items (3,6,11,13,14,15,17,18,22) selected in disagreement with inclusive education philosophy or practice appeared to indicate some mixed attitudes on the part of the professionals. The idea that special education students can be educated in a regular classroom with assistance was overwhelming supported (41% (15) agreed, 37% (14) strongly agreed), but the concept that the least restrictive environment can be a self-contained classroom, item 3, was accepted (22% (8) strongly agreed, and 40% (15) agreed). The statement that students with a learning disability who have spatial and time orientation problems would not profit from going to a resource room, item 11, was rejected (30% (11) disagreed and 30% (11) strongly disagreed). Item 14 which was the concept that with further preparation and training teachers would be able to effectively meet the educational needs of their resource room students was strongly disagreed with by 30% (11) while 22% (8) strongly agreed, and item 15 which indicated that with additional consultative support, the teachers would be able to meet the educational needs of their resource room students was strongly disagreed with by 41% (16) while 22% (8) strongly agreed. The results appeared to indicate some uncertainties on the part of these professionals. Items 17 and 18 were supportive of special education and the labeling of students into special education categories, but item 6 indicated the professionals feel labeling diminishes students' self worth. Item 21 supported therapists providing services in a regular classroom by a narrow martin. Item 22 appeared to indicate, with 33% (12) agreeing and 30% (11) strongly agreeing, that teachers are uneasy about consultants from special education spending time teaching and consulting in their classrooms.

In contrast to these nine disagreeing responses, the remaining 13 were supportive of inclusive education. Overall the professionals supported the concept of educating special education students in regular education by regular education teachers (items 1,2,5,9,10,16,20).

DISCUSSION

The results of the present study indicated that while the educational professionals were predominately supportive of inclusive education, a small percentage, 7-15%, were consistently nonsupportive of inclusive education. The results on the nine items of major disagreement tended to lend credence to the view that for selected New Mexico's professionals there were areas of confusion concerning inclusive education. Data collected for this project seemed to indicate that the concept of inclusive education was supported, but that the application of that concept to the professionals' individual classrooms was not equally supported. During the 1992-1993 academic year, none of the school districts represented by these professionals, were implementing inclusive education, but two districts were preparing to implement it during the 1994-1995 school year.

In rural New Mexico, a full spectrum of special education services were sometimes difficult to provide. Often, the special education teachers were required to teach all exceptionalities and all levels of severity in one room, sometimes with very limited related services. The basic assumption arising from these circumstances was that regular education would be the best location in rural New Mexico to provide for the needs of students with disabilities. Data collected for the project verified that these professionals viewed the regular classroom as an appropriate location for the education of special education students, but they also supported the continuation of resource rooms and expressed uneasiness about therapists or consultants jointly teaching with them in general education classrooms.

It could be argued that the sample for this study was too small to draw a valid conclusion. However, New Mexico currently is a small state with a limited professional population. The percentages of administrators, special education teachers, and related service personnel in this study were similar to the percentage of professionals in these categories in New Mexico. The individuals who attended the yearly CEC state conference were the educational leaders in New Mexico, therefore the results of this project could be viewed as indicative of the attitudes, and knowledge level of the professionals in New Mexico. Thus, the project results were generalized to the population of professional educators in New Mexico.

Based upon the conflicting attitudes evidenced in this study, additional research and dialogue among New Mexico's professionals will be needed before inclusive education is fully implemented in New Mexico. It would appear that additional work is required at the "grass roots level" if teachers are to be educated and enlightened with respect to inclusive education. Perhaps, it will be necessary to implement some of the new methods and techniques advocated by inclusive education proponents on a widespread basis before professionals will be convinced of the feasibility and efficacy of such techniques.

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APPENDIX A

PERCENTILE RESPONSES TO FULL INCLUSION SURVEY

SA = Strongly Agree A= Agree U = Undecided D= Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	Students in special education can be educated in a regular classroom with assistance from the special education department.	37	41	00	11	11
2.	Regular education teachers can be responsible for students enrolled in special education.	15	37	22	07	19
3.	Least restrictive environment can be a self-contained classroom.	22	40	11	00	26
4.	Special education teachers in my building are protective of their students.	33	45	00	15	07
5.	A child with an emotional disturbance can function only in a self-contained classroom.	07	15	15	48	15
6.	I believe labeling diminishes student self worth.	41	26	15	11	07
7.	I believe in-services are valuable for the staff.	44	30	00	07	19
8.	A principal must be knowledgeable in the area of Full Inclusion.	68	32	00	00	00
9.	Our staff works well together.	33	37	00	11	19
10.	Children model the behavior of other children.	44	52	00	40	00
11.	Students with learning disabilities who have spatial and time orientation problems would profit from not having to go to a resource room.	03	26	11	30	30
12.	There is too much duplication of services between Chapter 1, special education, bilingual and migrant services.	19	14	00	30	37
13.	Financial resources currently allotted for students with a mild disability could be preserved if such students are reintegrated into full-time regular education.	10	26	19	26	19
14.	Given further preparation & training, I would be able to effectively meet the educational needs of those students currently served by the resource room program.	22	26	11	11	30
15.	Given additional consultative type support, I would be able to meet the educational needs of students with mild disabilities in my class without the need for a resource room.	22	15	11	11	41
16.	The skills needed to teach mildly disabled and nondisabled students are essentially the same.	11	30	25	19	15
17.	Most children currently labeled learning disabled are not "truly" educationally disabled.	11	07	11	49	22

18	Identifying students for the purpose of providing special education is a discriminatory practice.	07	11	11	49	22
19.	I feel too much staff money and resources has been allocated for the special education program.	00	4	15	59	22
20.	Scheduling difficulties make it impossible to enact the Regular Education Initiative or Full Inclusion.	04	26	18	45	07
21.	Other support personnel (therapists) could take their services into a regular classroom.	22	33	00	30	15
22	Teachers are uneasy about consultants from the special education department spending time teaching and consulting in their rooms.	30	33	11	11	15

Adapted from: S. Kennedy. (1990) The Regular Education Initiative in the Anchorage Public Schools. Anchorage, AK: Author.

Kevin J. Miller
Luise B. Savage
West Virginia Univ.
Morgantown, WV

INCLUDING GENERAL EDUCATORS IN INCLUSION

Nationally, there has been increasing emphasis on providing appropriate, well coordinated educational support for students with learning and behavioral problems within general education classrooms and curricula. The number of students with disabilities taught in general education settings has increased every year since the inception of 94-142 in 1975. The latest U.S. Department of Education report to Congress (1994) reports that over 70% of the 4.6 million 6-21 year old student students with disabilities are being taught in general education classrooms. Thirty-five percent of these students spend the entire school day in general education classes, another 36% are enrolled in mainstream settings on a part-time/resource room basis. All indications are that this trend will continue to grow as the term "inclusion" continues to be one of the "hot" topics in education.

Critics of inclusion complain the increasing reliance on general educators to assume responsibility for disabled and at-risk children demands an effective support system that takes into consideration shared input, responsibility, and decision making between general and special educators--a collaborative support system which is not in place in many educational settings. Further, neither special educators nor regular class teachers have been prepared for this growing need for interaction between them. Collaboration necessitates high level training in collaborative problem solving skills, the mastery of questioning, listening, and organizing skills; familiarity with the regular curriculum, demands of large group instruction, curriculum adaptation, and behavioral change.

The success of inclusive schooling efforts is largely dependent on the general education teachers' ability and willingness to make appropriate modifications to accommodate individual differences (Madden & Slavin, 1983). Professional opportunities to enhance general and special education teachers' confidence in instructing students with disabilities in general education settings are warranted (Schumm, Vaughn, Gordon & Rothlein, 1994). Research also indicates that professional growth initiatives need to take into account teachers' beliefs and considerations (Richardson, Anders, Tidwell & Lloyd, 1991). The purpose of this proceeding is to present findings from a federally funded initiative to train special education teachers as collaborative consultants. Specifically, data on participating general education teachers' attitudes, skills and understanding of roles in a collaborative teaching model, before and after experiences with interactive teaming and availability of a consultant teacher intern, are narrated.

Training Program

Description of Collaborative Consultant Training for Special Educators

From 1991 to 1994, the Special Education Department in the College of Human Resources and Education at West Virginia University, conducted a teacher training project designed to train 30 special education teachers to serve as collaborative consultants. The trainees acquired two areas of specialization in the education of students with mild disabilities and were required to fulfill a 10-week internship. The internship training included working with general educators in interactive teams to facilitate the inclusion of special needs students in the regular classroom. Over the course of the project, approximately 135 general education teachers and 10 administrators were involved in teaming and staff development focusing on problem solving the curricular needs and behavior management of mildly disabled students. Participating teachers were located in Northern West Virginia schools and included elementary through high school settings.

Description of General Education Teacher Training

Participating general educators registered for a three credit seminar which took place at their home school. The seminars met on a weekly basis following school for two and one-half hours, were informal, and focused on discussion of problem students for whom everybody shared responsibility. The seminars served as staff development in communication and problem-solving techniques/strategies for addressing the needs of targeted student behaviors. Participation was voluntary and commitments included keeping a daily log of team activities, cooperative teaching, and dyad collaboration with the intern. A university supervisor was present at all seminar meetings.

Instruments

Attitude

A 16 item *Teacher Opinions* survey instrument developed by Larrivee and Cook (1983) was adapted and used to sample how general education teachers felt about having children with disabilities in their classrooms. Teachers responded to each question on a Likert-type scale of 1-5 (one = high score of agreement). The survey was administered before and after the seminar as a pre/posttest measures.

Skills

An eight item *Assessment of Skills for Teachers* instrument was adapted from Morsink, Thomas & Correa (1991) and administer to general education teachers to assess skills perception of skills acquired during the training received throughout the intern placement and seminar experience. A Likert-type scale of 1-5 was used to determine the degree to which the general education teachers felt they could demonstrate the skill. The survey was administered before and after the intern and seminar experience as a pre/posttest measure.

Roles of General and Special Educators

A twenty item *Consultation Model Preference Scale* developed by West (1985) was used to determine which consultation style teachers preferred. This instrument was administered to collect pre/posttest data on the participants perceptions of roles of general and special education teachers in the consultation relationship.

Results

Changes in attitude towards teaching students with disabilities, perceived teaching skills and understanding of roles in collaborative interactions were investigated using Wilk's Lambda MANOVA analysis and unpaired t-tests to test for levels of significance.

Attitudes

The data indicates that some attitudes can be changed to promote greater acceptance of students with disabilities in the mainstream. Statistically significant changes at the p=.05 level were recorded in the following areas: (1) The needs of academically handicapped students can (not) best be served through special separate classes (p=.014); (2) the extra attention special needs students require will not be to the detriment of the other students (p=.007); (3) students with disabilities☐will not develop academic skills more rapidly in special classrooms (p=.024); (4) collaborative projects of this kind will improve communication between special and general education teachers (p=.013); and (5) given extra training and support for teachers, class size could remain approximately the same if students with mild disabilities are served through the regular class (p=.002).

Noteworthy statements general education teachers agreed with on pre and posttest measures and thus were not statistically significant include: (1) Many things general education teachers do with nondisabled students are appropriate for students with special needs; (2) academic growth will be promoted due to the challenge of being in regular classrooms;

(3) mixed group interactions will lead to acceptance and understanding; (4) emotional and social needs of special needs students can best be met in the regular classroom; and (5) regular education students will benefit when students with special needs are included in the classroom.

Skills

Data collected from the general education teacher participants on the self-perception of skills indicate a statistically significant change in all eight areas addressed. Reported skill levels increased in the following: (1) Use of positive motivational strategies (p=<.0001); (2) analysis of materials according to appropriateness of students (p=<.0001); (3) development of appropriate lesson plans (p=.0008); (4) classroom scheduling (p=.0091); (5) responses to cultural differences (p=.0041); (6) resolving behavioral difficulties between students (p=.0162); (7) developing intervention plans for deviant behaviors (p=.0003); and (8) identifying specific teaching materials to meet needs of a given exceptionally (p=<.0001).

Roles of General and Special Educators

The data indicate that the general education teachers had a high level of agreement with the basic tenets of collaboration on both pre and posttest measures. However, there still was an overall statistically significant change (p=.006) favoring stronger agreement. Additionally statistically significant changes were noted with the following statements: (1) the consultant and I should both identify the problem based on information we have collected (p=.012); (2) the consultant and I may each implement some of the recommendations (p=.005); (3) the consultant and I should both suggest intervention recommendations which we will both implement (p=.001); and (4) the consultant and I should engage in continuous follow-up to modify the intervention recommendations if necessary (p=.006).

Discussion/Implications

The findings indicate that when general education teachers are provided training, supportive services through a collaborative consultant, an in-house team of teachers, and a designated time to meet, positive changes in attitude, skills and willingness to participate in collaborative interactions can be recorded. The use of an on-the-job training model for general education teachers in their home schools is supported by the data. The changes in general education teachers' responses on the posttest measures are in part attributed to the use of on-going seminars to directly problem-solve targeted student academic and behavior concerns. Specific real-life classroom problems were addressed through practical and immediately applicable strategies and interventions which were supported by the guidance and assistance of a consultant trainee. General education teachers were accepting of the "how to" strategies they (general education teachers with consultant trainee) helped develop and apply in their classrooms. The findings, however, must be interpreted with caution as all general education teachers in this study volunteered to participate. Regardless, the results have implications regarding the structuring of staff development activities and the structuring of teacher time to enhance the academic and behavioral performance of students with special needs in general education settings. This study shows that with relevant on-the-job training, general education teacher attitudes, perception of skills, and willingness to participate in collaborative interactions regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities can be positively influenced. However, further research is needed to determine if this training approach will effect teacher behavior (use of developed skills) and ultimately what effects, if any, this will have on performance of all students in the general education setting.

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Terry R. Berkeley
Gallaudet University
Washington, D.C.

Nancy E. Harriman
Plymouth State College
Plymouth, New Hampshire

Tobi Gray-Chassie
SAU #51, Pittsfield, NH

LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR SPECIAL EDUCATORS

Fundamental to education is the great force of effects when children are learning or not, or when their instruction is not effectively managed. For us the force of these effects goes beyond increased sophistication in how or what children are learning as the nexus of schooling is its meeting point with the community. In rural schools where schools mirror community life more than in any other geographic locale (Berkeley & Bull, 1995, forthcoming; Butterworth, 1926), the force of effects of rural schooling is magnified as the school is central to the life and values of the community in which it is located. Coupling the dynamics inherent in school-community interactions, schooling as a system is made up of many people and groups who respond to problems, concerns, issues, difficulties, and increased complexity.

How, then, can it be that an ennobled enterprise, the teaching of willing and eager children, can be so complex an enterprise to lead? If schooling does mirror perhaps the best of community, how can it be that there is so much mystery in the effective leadership of schools? Can it just be the seminal characteristic of the dilemma Howard Gardner in The Unschooled Mind (1991) pointed out that appeared in Tracy Kidder's Among Schoolchildren (1989):

> Put twenty or more children of roughly the same age in a little room, confine them to desks, make them wait in lines, make them behave. It is as if a secret committee, now lost to history, had made a study of children and having figured out what the greatest number were least disposed to do, decreed that all should do it. (Gardner, p. 138; Kidder, p. 115)

If the answer is in the affirmative (and we believe that it might be), the concern for making schooling better for children and overcoming the way children have been "boxed" for generations (Sirotnik, 1983) has led us to thinking about educational leadership from a different, albeit quite positive perspective. As we began to consider this perspective, we began to devise a model or framework of leadership directly related to "vision making" in schools, thus, making schools places where ***WE*** really want to be!

Our perspective begins with the idea that school leadership should be a reflection of the interface of the individual who is providing leadership to the organization in which leadership is provided, or the environment (ecology) where the individual and the school meet. To better understand leadership from this perspective, we have borrowed from Piaget, Bronfenbrenner, and Meisels to frame a conceptual understanding of leading we call, ***developmental leadership***. This framework especially is fitting in special education with more and more programming for students with disabilities taking place in community schools, in inclusive or integrated classrooms in which traditional school boundaries are crossed more than in any other area of schooling.

The balance of this paper is on our views about the relationship between theoretical assumptions in human development (the connections between human development and organizational development) and the presentation of the developmental leadership model. We, then, will focus on a practical application of using the model in leadership training at the Summer, 1994 New Hampshire (NH) Special Education Leadership Institute (SELI) and on the beginnings of the use of the developmental leadership model as a foundation for planning future leadership training in New Hampshire and in implementing vision statements at the school district level.

Human Development and Organizational Behavior

Piaget (1952; 1963) discussed the dynamic on-going nature of the interaction of the human organism with the environment. This is a middle ground of development between a reliance upon biology as the mediating stimulus of developmental sophistication in the growing human individual and the environment as the crucible upon which human development occurs. In the middle ground of this continuum, Piagetian notions of development , or constructivism (e.g., development as a constructed interactive process), "exists" in which there are four important elements, or factors. Meisels (1979) suggests these factors are the essentials of development. They include: a) maturation, or growth of over time; b) actions in the physical world, or in the physical locations where development occurs; c) interactions in the social world, or the relationships among the people surrounding the developing individual; and.
d) equilibration, or self-regulation or adapting to the demands confronted by a developing individual (p. 3).

In order to bring clarity to the relationships between and among these factors, Bronfenbrenner (1979) put forth the notion of an "ecology" of development. "Development," according to Bronfenbrenner "is defined...as a lasting change in the way in which a person perceives and deals with his environment." (p. 3). And human development when thought about as a unit, similar to thinking in mathematics, is a set. Here one can define a set as "...a collection of definite distinct objects of our perception or of our thought, which are called elements of the set" (Breuer, 1958, p. 4). When one considers Meisels' four essential factors, the elements of the set make-up the child, or the set also is human development.

Bronfenbrenner considers development to be "lasting change.", Similarly, Lewis and Starr (1979) discussed development in terms of change. They say, "The study of change demarcates the area of developmental inquiry. At its most basic level, the problem of development is that of finding order in change, identifying continuities in behavioral systems that are rapidly transforming and reorganizing" (p. 653). In other words, they contend, development can be observed as something "being" at time (t) and something different at t+1, the next time we observe the human organism in activity.

By now, one probably is wondering what any of this has to do with leadership! Well, for us, Bronfenbrenner offers the link between how an individual develops and the development of an organization. Simply, though, if people change over time in their actions and interactions with the physical and social world, then, they must successfully be negotiating their way through the environment. Given that organizations through the interactions of staff, clients, and other stakeholders or shareholders change over time, they must be doing this in specific places, and by providing services they are meeting the demand of their constituent group. In this way, organizations and individuals develop in a parallel ways. That is to say, there are connections between maturation, the actions in the physical world, interactions in the social world, and equilibration occurring within and outside, but related, to the program.

There still is need for more clarity. We, again, turn to Bronfenbrenner for help as we believe in the importance of his perspective of the ecology of human development. First, he said.

> The ecological environment (of development) is conceived as a set of nested structures, each inside the next...the innermost level is the immediate setting containing the developing person. This can be the home or classroom...The next step...leads us off the beaten track for it requires looking beyond single settings to the relations between them...such interconnections can be as decisive for development as events taking place within a given setting...The third level of the ecological environment takes us farther afield and evokes a hypothesis that the person's development is profoundly affected by events occurring in settings in which the individual is not present. (1979, p. 3)

Second, he offered a more abstract view also notated as nested structures, again each level is inside the next, but this time based upon a systems framework. At the core,

> ...the complex of interrelations within the immediate setting is the *microsystems*. the principle of interconnectedness is seen as applying not only to linkages between settings, both those in which the developing person actually participates and those he (she) may never enter but in which events occur that affect what happens in the person's immediate environment. The former constitute what I shall call *mesosystems*, and the latter *exosystems*. Finally, the complex of nested, interconnected systems is viewed as a...patterns...common to a particular culture or subculture. Such generalized patterns are referred to as *macrosystems*.

By substituting program or organization for person or individual, the focus is oriented toward the development of programs not on human development.

By shifting attention in the immediate setting or in the microsystem from the developing individual to an organization, the lowest level of analysis is that of a program or agency, not a child or adult. The other levels of the system might be the organization in which the program is located (the microsystem), for example a special education program in a school (the mesosystem) that is part of a department of special education (exosystem) that is part of a school district (macrosystem). Each aspect of this second set of nested structure descriptors specified by Bronfenbrenner is interconnected and all that occurs is interrelated. And tying this to Bronfenbrenner's first conceptualization of nested structures, the immediate setting is the program with various relationships between the program in the school building, as part of a department of special education, and as a part of the district. Next, when the state department of education, or the federal government, or the Congress, for example, enacts new policy, the staff and students in that program who were not present when the new policy was enacted into law or the program staff were told to implement the new policy, there is an impact of the policy or of the new regulations upon the program. Strength in leadership, we contend, is necessary so the interconnectedness of programs is considered to be important, thus, enhancing program efficiency.

Developmental Leadership

Why do we think Piaget, Meisels, and Bronfebrenner can be helpful in thinking about leadership? From a theoretical standpoint we point to Bronfenbrenner's thinking about the necessity "...of the environment extending beyond the behavior of individuals to encompass functional systems..." (p. 7) in which there is support for the notion that a view toward human development in the context of leadership could be helpful. From the point of levity, we suppose, "Systematic challenges, even if they disable...specific assertions, would constitute success" (Cole, 1979, p. x), especially if as Goethe suggested "Everything has been thought of before, the difficulty is to think of it again" (Cole, 1979, p. ix). So, perhaps, this connection between development and leadership has been written about previously, if it has, though, we have not seen it applied to education. And when the model was first discussed at the 1994 SELI, the participants seemed quite comfortable with the theoretical assertions that we made including the shift to applying the model to the implementation of vision statements in home school districts.

The developmental leadership model is not a set of precepts with which to indoctrinate administrators. Rather, it is a conceptual framework that provides a guide for designing the content and format of thinking about how programs can be implemented. And, the professional literature abounds with articles and books about the process of change, adaptation to change, and strategies for facilitating change that requires a unique and separate set of skills to master.

There are three assumptions that need to be made, none of which require a suspension of beliefs. First, human development from the perspectives of Bronfenbrenner, Piaget, and Meisels can be applied to organizational development and the behavior of individuals acting together as an organization. Second, the four critical factors of human development can be applied to organizational development since organizations gain experience over time (maturation) as program(s) are implemented, since there is intraindividual and interindividual interactions among those who are internal and external to the organization in a variety of settings, and these people usually satisfy the demands of the environment as they achieve organizational goals and objectives (equilibration). Most importantly, the concept of equilibration provides a context for recognizing the continual "balancing act" with which individuals struggle when striving to be true to their own beliefs and priorities while meeting goals and objectives set out in the organizations in which they work. Third, the application of development to managing the array of tasks confronting leaders is dependent upon overseeing and being acutely aware of the constant interactions occurring among the different individuals and groups of individuals in organizations in precisely the ways that Bronfenbrenner suggested in both perspectives of nested structures.

The ability to reflect and equilibrate must be complimented by a substantive knowledge base and repertoire of strategies related to effective leadership. The success of an administrator should be a function of qualities and behaviors rather than power or position. Beck (1994) suggests that effective leaders possess many of the same qualities as effective teachers: knowledge, caring, commitment, and the ability to assist people as they reshape their thinking. That is, they have an enthusiasm for their work that they share with others (Senge, 1990). Giroux (1989) refers to such individuals as "transformative intellectuals" who "reflect on the ideological principles that inform their practice, connect pedagogical theory to practice to wider social issues, and work together to share ideas, exercise power over the condition of their labor, and embody in their teaching a vision of a better and more humane life" (p. 729).

Developmental Leadership In Practice

The four Piaget-Meisels critical factors of human development can be thought about individually and collectively; although, as a practical matter in a collective sense there is interaction of people internal and external to an organization that creates adherence to both of Bronfenbrenner's notions of nested structure. Individually, characteristics or functions of leadership can be ascribed to each factor. A partial list might include:

Maturation
Communications/Language
Leadership Practice
Reform/Change/Collaboration
Reorganizing Experience
Risk

Action in the Physical World
Ambiance
Community
Facilities
Home
Workplace

Interaction in the Social World
Diversity: Groups & Ideas
Individuals
Families
Social Organizations
Special Interest Groups
Work Teams

Equilibration
Balance in Leadership
Ethics/Honesty/Ideals/Integrity
Investment/Ownership
Meeting Emerging & Identified Needs
Professional Development & Training
Professional Standards of Practice
Program Evaluation
Technical Assistance & Consultation

Leadership Training

The theme of the 1994 NH Summer Leadership Academy in Special Education was "Building A Vision of Schooling." During the first two and one-half days, participants engaged in a series of discussions and activities designed to "build" five cohesive groups. These activities included providing practical responses to lectures about the "look" of an ideal school, engaging in discussions with parents, administrators, and a school board member, developing the notion of an "ensemble" and performing in ensemble groups, and developing supportive and interactive teams.

On the last morning of the Academy, we presented a workshop entitled "Schooling in Transition: Communicating Your Vision." In introducing the model for the first time, we discussed different traits of leadership that we thought were important to consider when a school leader goes about the implementation of a vision in a school district. These traits of leadership can be grouped under Pajak's (1993) educational functions of leadership, or empowering self and others, transcending superficial understandings, applying knowledge to practical problems, and making the future better than the present. The specific traits might include: a) the notion that success is not accidental; b) starting with an ideal, moving to the real, and relating that to the ideal in implementation; c) thinking prospectively; d) recognizing that change takes time, results are not immediate; e) leadership requires a "will and determination" among shareholders to a change process; f) affective tone in communications is crucial to success; g) clarity in communications is a necessity; and, h) effective leaders foster honesty, respect, responsibility, balance, safety, and learning among all who are partners in an organization.

From this initial presentation, Institute participants worked in the five teams on different aspects of implementing school vision statements. We called this "vision work." For Team #1, the focus was on gathering information about the vision. Team #2 concentrated on garnering and maintaining support for the short term and long term for the vision statement. Team #3 formulated a plan for preparing shareholders for the implementation of the vision statement. Team #4 considered implementation of the statement. And, Team #5 provided thoughts about evaluating the implementation of the vision statement and engaging in planned change in order to maintain the forward momentum of the vision. After this work was completed, members of these groups presented their ideas regarding their respective area of vision work and responses were provided relating the plans to the developmental leadership model as presented earlier in the day.

Early Results in Leadership Training and School District Implementation

From our perspective, participation at the summer Institute, which was planned by the participants working together with the faculty and staff of the Center for Professional Partnerships seemed to be valuable in terms of expected outcomes and for that which was unexpected. For the participants, the developmental leadership model helped to create an atmosphere in which administrators have been empowered, have gained a greater understanding of the "big picture," and have been offered an opportunity to apply knowledge to practical problems, and, thus, fulfill a vision for training responsive to their espoused needs and to enhance their own leadership effectiveness in their home districts.

An immediate effect of involvement in the training has been gaining ownership of the professional development process for special education directors in New Hampshire. By being empowered to make decisions and determine the course of training opportunities that they want, participants have become leaders fulfilling their own professional destiny. Ownership of this process has led to a greater commitment to the developmental leadership model and, more importantly, increased commitment to the family of participating administrators.

From a pragmatic perspective, the planning and subsequent implementation of training opportunities has provided administrators with opportunities to take information from other sources (i.e., a research journal article, legal briefs, communications from the NH Department of Education) and to reflect on key issues and discuss implementations strategies. Discussions have led to more consistent interpretations of all kinds of information (i.e., laws, standards, procedures). This consistency, for example, has made it easier to assist in the transition of students from one district to another and for more efficient communication from one administrator to another. In this instance, and from the point of view of the developmental leadership model, there has been maturation in terms of administrator relationships as they contend with issues related to students and families social world) in their districts (physical places), thus, allowing for more effective implementation of programs (adapting to the demands of the environment). From the parallel Bronfenbrenner perspective of nested structures, the constant set of interactions between administrators regarding student transfers (that previous to this time may have been exceedingly difficult due to turf and fiscal issues), generally, has been overcome due to a greater understanding of the dynamics inherent in collaboration and cooperation.

Final Comments

During the past year our work through the Center for Educational Partnerships at Plymouth State College has led to the early stages of understanding the application of individual human development theory to the development and leadership taking place in organizations. Due to our work in the arena of disabilities, special education has been the focal point for determining if the developmental leadership model is viable for implementing visions of schooling, and, as it has turned out, for planning future professional development activities for New Hampshire's special education directors and their colleagues.

At a minimum thinking about the developmental leadership model since its introduction at the 1994 NH Summer Institute has provoked the following responses: a) program leadership and implementation is a continuous process that is more like a video tape than a snapshot consisting of constant interactions at different levels of a complex array of systems; and, b) the many functions of leadership thought about from a human development context can be beneficial in analyzing organizational efforts from the perspective of actors, actions, and their associations or the roles, functions, and responses of leaders working in concert with others. The goal here, we contend is to enhance schooling for all children and to enhance the relationship between rural America's schools and the communities in which those schools are located.

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Christine W. Chancey
Institute for Small and Rural Districts/
North East Florida Educational Consortium
Palatka, Florida

ALTERNATIVE DELIVERY TECHNIQUES FOR TRAINING AND INFORMATION DISSEMNATION FOR SMALL AND RURAL DISTRICTS

Educational administrators must perform a multitude of duties ranging from personnel supervision to student discipline to facilities management to instructional leadership. Performance of tasks associated with these responsibilities requires that they possess a wide range of management and leadership skills and abilities (*Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development*, 1988). Administrators today must also have an indepth knowledge of special education programs and services, limited English proficiency, instructional methodologies and a multitude of other areas for our changing and diverse population of students in schools. Through the inclusion movement and overall school restructuring, "the emerging paradigm, the perspective shift toward an inclusive school philosophy, is compatible with the underlying principles of the movement toward a general restructuring of education" (*Leadership in Educational Reform*, 1994).

In examining the situation, many administrators in small and rural areas are not prepared to face the challenges and responsibilities of their role as it has emerged. The Institute for Small and Rural Districts established in 1990 by the Florida Department of Education (DOE), Bureau of Student Services and Exceptional Education (BSSEE) has been attempting to address this issue particularly as it relates to exceptional education. The function of the Institute is to assist administrators responsible for exceptional education programs and services through the following:

- Provide a statewide network of technical assistance and services to small and rural district exceptional student education administrators in Florida.
- Share information and assist with current programmatic and functional concerns in rural exceptional student education.
- Maintain a database of district and other experts with unique expertise for rural service delivery.
- Coordinate with university training programs regarding coursework needed by small and rural district personnel.
- Assist with teacher recruitment and retention.
- Produce reports and disseminate resources and best practice information on topics and issues related to rural exceptional education.
- Sponsor distance learning opportunities and working meetings on issues related to small and rural exceptional education.
- Provide consultative networking, cross-district visitation, referral to appropriate sources, travel to model sites, and similar efforts.

The Institute began researching and gathering information to identify the gaps and assess the needs of the twenty-seven small districts across Florida. Several factors were essential to the development of current activities now being provided by the Institute. The following are a few of the factors that were critical:

- Universities in Florida do not have any exceptional education coursework requirements for leadership or regular education programs of study.
- There are no state certification requirements for exceptional education administrators.
- Of the current twenty-seven ESE Administrators, eleven had no prior exceptional education experience.
- Of the current twenty-seven ESE Administrators sixteen had no prior administrative experience.
- Inclusionary practices are impacting all educators.
- Time to develop skills and attend training is limited and often inaccessible.

Two major activities currently in progress by the Institute to be discussed are competency based training for exceptional education administrators and training for school based administrators on exceptional education programs, services and methodologies.

Competency Based Training for Exceptional Education Administrators

Extensive research was conducted to identify competencies needed by exceptional education adminstrators. Information gathered included input from other states as well as research conducted by Donnie Evans, Debra Houston and Kathy Piechura, University of South Florida, 1992. Competencies were compiled and a task force of DOE/BSSEE staff, district exceptional education administrators with and without exceptional education experience, and Institute staff convened to review and refine the list of competencies. All twenty-seven ESE Administrators were then given the opportunity to provide input and rank those components and competencies most essential to an incoming administrator. (See appendix A for list of components and competencies.)

After considering all information, the first training developed was "Student Identification", delivered utilizing videoconferencing through the Florida Remote Learning System. A resource manual accompanied the training with information on eligibility criteria for all categorical programs in Florida, the prereferral/referral process, helpful hints, checklist for preparing and conducting a staffing, and resource information. Five sites were utilized across the state for the videoconference lessening travel time and expenses and allowing convenience for participation. (See appendix B for map of small districts and videoconference sites.) A panel of DOE/BSSEE staff was part of the training as well as a simulated eligibility staffing.

This mechanism for delivery allowed participation of fifty-four (54) administrators from small and rural districts. The cost analysis for the training estimated a savings of approximately $7,000 over a traditional training. Unlike other videoconferencing this particular system allows participants at all sites to interact visually and verbally with one another.

Evaluation results ranked the training content as well as the delivery mechanism as meeting participants' needs. (See appendix C for evaluation results.) The most frequent comments received in writing cited the helpfulness of the resource book (twenty-four) and reduced travel time as a benefit of utilizing technology (twenty-seven).

Additional training plans are a second videoconference on "Utilizing Resources and Interagency Initiatives", Spring, 1995 and the Fourth Annual Summer Worksession, July 17th and 18th, 1995. The overall plan for delivery of training is three years with revisions to resource materials as information and requirements are modified. The majority of training will utilize the Florida Remote Learning System as the delivery mechanism.

School Based Administrators Training

The Leadership Training Institute at the University of South Florida funded by the DOE/BSSEE has provided training for administrators on legal issues for quite some time. It was found through inquiry, that very few of the small district administrators ever attended the training due primarily to inconvenience and time constraints. The training was set-up at a large city over several days. As we further surveyed the administrators, we also found there were other pieces of information, in addition to legal issues, they found necessary to be a support in their school for exceptional education programs and services. The Institute piloted the first in a series of trainings for "principals only" in a remote region of Florida with twelve (12) small districts. Sites were established so that no administrator would be required to drive more than fifty (50) miles to attend. The training proved to be a tremendous success. Principals liked having the opportunity to communicate with other principals, the convenient location, and the resource manual which accompanied the training. (See appendix D for evaluation results.)

With the success of the training, principals identified additional areas including funding, legal issues and instructional methodologies which they would like to receive via the regional concept. Trainings are scheduled for spring and summer, 1995. Other rural regions have requested the same training due to the reported benefits expressed by those administrators who received the training in the pilot stage. Those trainings are also scheduled for spring and summer, 1995.

As additional Florida Remote Learning System sites are established, training for school based administrators may be conducted utilizing this videoconferencing mechanism. The Institute for Small and Rural Districts is also collaborating with the Leadership Training Institute, University of South Florida regarding a Leadership Training design. Focus groups were conducted regionally to access needs by the Leadership Training Institute; data collected supported the information gathered from the small and rural districts.

Conclusion

Those who become administrators in school systems assume enormous obligations and responsibilities. The most important of these is to build a structure of relationships so all children have the opportunity to learn. In order to do this we must develop and use our professional knowledge and skills to create conditions in which each child can grow to his or her full potential and all children are given equal opportunity to succeed in our society (*Instructional Leadership*, 1989). The Institute for Small and Rural Districts is a support system which is working with district administrators to help build a structure and provide the support necessary to make a difference for exceptional education students. Small and rural districts do not have support services as readily available as urban districts. The Institute is responsive to this condition by seeking and providing opportunities through alternative methods of delivery and support.

Appendix A

ESE ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING COMPONENTS AND COMPETENCIES

I. Program Development
  A. Student Identification
  B. Utilizing Resources and Interagency Initiatives
  C. Infants, Toddlers and Preschool Handicapped
  D. Individualized Education Plans and Family Service Plans
  E. Regular Education Initiatives - Integrate Delivery Systems with Existing Basic Programs and Practices
  F. Curriculum/Instructional Methods and Strategies and Technology
  G. Program Planning/Coordination and Related Services
  H. Community/Parent Involvement
  I. Special Education Topics

II. Leadership
  A. Program Philosophy, Goals and Initiatives
  B. Effective Communication/Public Relations
  C. Leadership Models/Human Resource Development Management

III. Management
  A. Personnel Recruitment/Selection/Certification/Supervision
  B. Organizational Skills, Decision Making, Time, Stress and Change Management
  C. Networking Systems and Services
  D. Strategic Planning

IV. Legal
  A. Federal Legislation/Current Trends
  B. Federal/State Compliance Issues
  C. Special Education Case Review
  D. Preparing for Litigation/Proceedings
  E. Least Restrictive Environment
  F. Due Process and Complaint Procedures/Requirements

V. Fiscal Planning and Management

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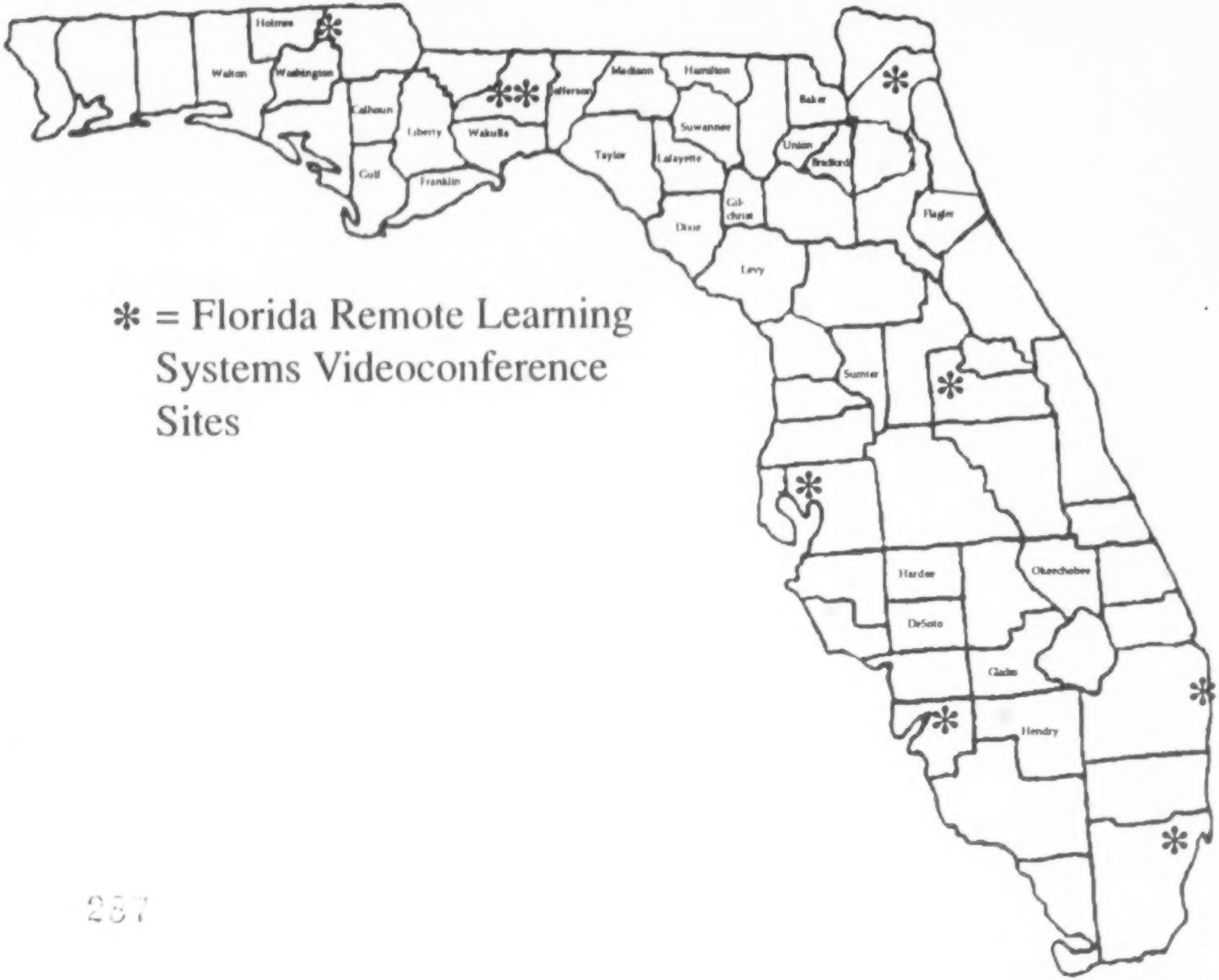
Holmes
Walton
Washington
Calhoun
Liberty
Wakulla
Gulf
Franklin
Jefferson
Madison
Hamilton
Suwannee
Baker
Union
Bradford
Taylor
Lafayette
Gil-christ
Dixie
Levy
Flagler
Sumter
Hardee
Okeechobee
DeSoto
Glades
Hendry

* = Florida Remote Learning Systems Videoconference Sites

Appendix C

INSTITUTE FOR SMALL AND RURAL DISTRICTS
ISRD/NEFEC

WORKSHOP EVALUATION SUMMARY

Name of Activity: ISRD ESE Administrators' Training

Location: Five Videoconferencing Sites

Date: January 13, 1995

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion/ Not Applicable	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The purpose and objectives were clear.	27 56%	21 44%			
2. The videoconference was an appropriate technique for this training.	32 67%	16 33%			
3. The resource manual is relevant and will assist me in my duties.	30 63%	9 19%	8 16%	1 2%	
4. The presentation was easy to understand.	24 50%	21 44%	2 4%	1 2%	
5. The program was informative.	30 63%	16 33%	2 4%		
6. The videoconference was well organized.	27 59%	19 41%			
7. Onsite facilitation of videoconference was appropriate.	32 67%	16 33%			
8. Sufficient time was allowed for a question and answer period.	21 44%	24 50%			
9. I feel prepared to apply what I have learned.	15 34%	19 43%	10 23%		
10. I would like further information on this specific area.	8 19%	14 33%	19 45%	1 3%	
11. I felt comfortable with this delivery method of training.	25 52%	20 42%	2 4%	1 2%	
12. I would participate in future videoconferencing trainings.	35 73%	12 25%	1 2%		

Appendix D

INSTITUTE FOR SMALL AND RURAL DISTRICTS
ISRD/NEFEC

WORKSHOP EVALUATION SUMMARY

Name of Activity: ISRD Principals' Inservice (ESE Characteristics and Inclusion)

Name of Consultant: Mary Ann Ahearn and Dennis Ehrhardt

Location: Poseys in Panacea and Camp Weed in Live Oak

Date: November 30th & December 1st, 1994

Total of 35 Responders

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion/ Not Applicable	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
1. The purpose and objectives were clear.	23 66%	12 34%				
2. The methods for instruction were appropriate.	20 57%	15 43%				
3. The resource materials were relevant.	27 77%	8 23%				
4. The presentation was easy to understand.	20 57%	14 40%	1 3%			
5. The program was interesting.	21 60%	14 40%				
6. The workshop was well organized.	23 66%	12 34%				
7. The consultant was aware of the needs of the group.	25 71%	10 29%				
8. I gained valuable information.	24 69%	11 31%				
9. Sufficient time was allowed for a question and answer period.	22 63%	12 34%		1 3%		
10. I feel prepared to apply what I have learned.	12 35%	17 50%	4 12%	1 3%		1 No Response
11. I would like further inservice on this specific area.	18 55%	14 42%		1 3%		2 No Response

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Gwen Schroth
East Texas State University
Commerce, Texas
Graham Sweeney
Superintendent, Boles ISD
Boles, Texas
Mary Fuller
East Texas State University
Commerce, Texas

IMPLEMENTING TECHNOLOGY WITHOUT BREAKING THE BANK

Texas is a very diverse state. The student population of 3.5 million is growing at a rate of 77,000 students per year. Close to 600 of the 1,058 school districts have less than 1,000 students. The largest district, Houston Independent School District, with its 200,000 students is in sharp contrast to Allamoore I. S. D. where there are only three students. There are bus routes where students travel 75 miles daily to reach their schools and 300 miles for some in-district athletic competitions.

The wealth of the school districts is as diverse as its geographic make-up. Texas spent in excess of $17.5 billion on education in the 1993-l994 school year, distributing the funds according to the perceived need of the districts. The richest school district in Texas boasts a nuclear power plant within its boundaries, bringing its assessed property tax value to $7.5 billion for its 1,200 students. Boles Independent School District, on the other hand, is the poorest district with an assessed property tax value of $5 million and supports 360 students. Yet Boles has a state-wide reputation, not for its lack of funds but for its technology program.

Boles I.S.D., situated 35 miles east of Dallas, has become an award winning district due to the aggressiveness of the superintendent and staff. They have pieced together a technology program that equals, and even surpasses, that of larger neighboring districts with more resources. The student population is small, consisting of 35 students from the Boles Childrens Home, 60 students who live in the district, and 265 students who transfer in from surrounding districts because parents are seeking a quality district with small class sizes and sound discipline.

Due to various economic realities, rural districts are hard pressed to offer students quality technology which larger, more affluent districts can provide. Despite the lack of funds derived from tax dollars, Boles has developed a technology plan that encompasses the latest in instructional and administrative technology for its students and staff. Their success is derived from their creativity, resourcefulness, and an unwillingness to give up. Through thrift, scavenging and ingenuity, the district has created a technologically advanced academic setting in which to nurture and enhance childrens' learning. The entire staff refused to accept an image of poverty and low morale and shifted to a resource-rich perspective. The result is a district recognized state-wide for its new programs and for its renewed pride.

The five major resource areas tapped by the district were:

1. Grants
2. Awards
3. Business and University partnerships
4. Publicity
5. Begging and borrowing but stopping just short of stealing.

Efforts were based upon 1) the theory that resources are available if one is willing to do the research necessary to find them, 2) the knowledge that money is not the only resource needed to reach a goal, and 3) the awareness of the power generated by partnerships.

GRANTS

Just as thousands of college scholarships are passed over by students who never bother to apply, grants are often overlooked as a funding resource. Boles I. S. D., taking the time and the risks involved in writing a grant proposal, received money from several agencies. The Ford Foundation provided funds to purchase high-quality, low-cost software for computer labs. A Texas Education Agency Direct Connectivity Grant enabled the district to link every computer on campus to the Internet via the Texas Education Network. Additional grants are being sought to support other long-range technology plans.

Grants are an obvious avenue for technology funding. What is often not so clear is the amount of time involved in applying for grants and documentation requirements after the grant has been received. Yet the payoff can make the effort worthwhile. One skill for good grant writing is knowing when not to apply. What looks good at first glance could cost the district more in management resources than the grant is worth. There is also safety in numbers. Local or regional consortiums can apply for grants as a group. If a group does not exist, any district can initiate one. Sharing ideas as well as workloads benefits everyone.

For individual district grants, local committees made up of administrators, teachers, and parents can forge the groundwork for a desired program. Because local governments deal with grants and the grant writing process on a continual basis, the Council of Governments or other government agencies can provide reference materials. If the grant in question is too important to pass up, hiring an outside consultant should be considered. Individual consultants are often reasonable about fees and can even write payment for consulting hours into the grant itself. If the grant has appeal, the consultant may make payment contingent on receiving the grant.

AWARDS

Awards are another resource for funds and often carry little or no stipulation as to how the money is to be spent. Boles received the Texas "Success in Schools" award making it possible to purchase software that gave teachers the capability of managing student records and grades on computers networked campus-wide.

Districts can be aggressive in seeking awards. Becoming knowledgeable of what is available locally, state-wide, and even nationally is a first step. Networks involving colleagues and organizations can be excellent sources of information. After identifying a suitable award, it may be necessary to secure a sponsor to make the nomination. Providing the sponsor with accurate and timely information on the district's accomplishments enhances the chance of receiving the award. Awards not accompanied with funds are also desirable. Once received, momentum builds (critical mass reached) and other recognitions, some with cash awards, often follow.

PARTNERSHIPS

Business Partnerships

Businesses spent over $30 billion retraining employees last year. Seeking to influence the future job force, businesses are increasing their involvement and cooperation with school districts. These partnerships are also vehicles for capitalizing on the willingness of local, and not so local, corporations to provide, at reduced rates, goods or services in exchange for free publicity or tax write-offs. At Boles, telephones, telephone lines, shelves, and fiber optic cables were donated by nearby East Texas State University and local businesses. The phone company agreed to install the telephone lines at reduced rates.

Business partnerships can be extensive for anyone willing to pursue them. Computer manufacturers are sometimes willing to provide small items at low, or no, cost. For example, wrist pads for computer labs may be donated in exchange for displaying the company's name or logo in front of students who have the potential of being future customers. Businesses with limited funds can sponsor a teacher's travel to a conference or award a scholarship for summer school. For Boles, systematically tapping local business resources has proved to be highly successful. A yearly campaign when personalized letters are sent to all local businesses serves as a reminder that the district still needs help. Once business liasons are established, they tend to develop a life of their own, enabling a district to reap the benefits for many years with a minimum amount of upkeep.

University Links

Universities are an untapped resource. Most universities are anxious to build partnerships with local school districts, partly due to new state requirements. Boles found that the services available from nearby East Texas State University were broad, from training food service employees to teaching such complex topics as Total Quality Management. Specific partnership projects were designed, involving a consortium of rural districts. The Teacher Inservice Training Program provided staff development for 500 employees from seven schools. Under the University's direction, a technology project included bringing nineteen rural schools together through fiber optic networks. With capabilities to teach and share teachers from any of these sites, advanced placement and university courses were made available. Through a grant, the University allotted eight districts $5,000 each to pursue projects at their individual sites. The projects included teacher training in specific areas, leadership academies, and training on the use of The Texas Education Network online computer system (TENET). A horticulture project instituted at Boles and several other districts tapped the expertise of the University's Science Department.

For Boles, the key to building a relationship with East Texas State University was communication. Frequent meetings were scheduled with department chairmen and deans. Knowing that new ideas take time to evolve, the district was patient. Boles' superintendent seized every opportunity to correspond by informing key departments and the University president of news events, pictures of outstanding events and letters of appreciation.

PUBLICITY

Publicity is a key element in implementing technology inexpensively. Good publicity, that is. Advertising accompishments can cause others to "jump on the band wagon" as donors want to know their resources are going to be well placed. The Houston Chronicle (1993) with a readership of 600,000 stated that Boles' "Super Lab" is one where software has been chosen specifically for student needs and noted that all Boles' buildings are networked via fiber optics. This piece of news brought further publicity and donations from the public. Subsequently the district has been recognized by Texas State Auditors Office (1993), the Texas Association of School Boards Lone Star publication (1994), and local newspapers. Forbes Magazine is even considering an article on Boles' success.

BEGGING, BORROWING, BUT NOT STEALING

Never being afraid to ask, Boles found corporations, companies, and individuals willing to help - often on their own time and at their own expense. The phrase "One man's trash is another man's treasure" can be be applied to school districts. Boles asked for help from a local defense contractor and received a lighting system, including a beacon, for their 200 foot microwave tower. Responding to an advertizement placed by a local door manufacturing company, Boles indicated their interest in but inability to pay for the company's discarded phone system. The company donated the system. As a result, Boles has 80 telephone extensions with a phone on every teacher's desk and an intercom system with capabilities for conference calls. A needy district was located to which Boles could donate their discarded phones. Spotting spools with short end pieces of 1,000-2,000 feet of fiber optic cable, Boles was able to persuade the owner, a local telephone cooperative, to donate the cable to connect all the campus buildings.

It is not uncommon to see the Boles superintendent in his truck, bringing in throw-away materials from a company's back lot or items from a local sale. For a small sum, Boles acquired 30 teacher desks from an estate sale. The structurally sound wooden desks provided lessons in staining techniques, scratch removal, and refinishing for the high school students. This scavenging mentality was contageous. Students searched for ways to salvage any and all materials. Businesses began looking at their trash piles in a new light and frequently call Boles before hauling items away or burning them.

Whether by request, by grants and awards, or by partnerships, Boles I.S.D. has been able to piece together a sound technology program for its students. It has required dropping an attitude of defeat and self pity and adopting one that views the world as a vast pool of resources. It means having the courage to do what needs to be done.

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Dr. Ellen U. Williams
Dr. Veronica Gold
Dr. Steven C. Russell
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio

DISTANCE EDUCATION AS A FUTURE TREND FOR PRE AND INSERVICE EDUCATION

Rural American Schools are often plagued with the problem of recruiting and retaining teachers who are knowledgeable about rural educational service delivery. University teacher training programs often are geared toward a curriculum that focuses on urban and suburban schools rather than on the rural school experience. One way in which rural schools and universities can collaboratively work to fill this void is through distance education. One such distance education program, Project CREST, has been undertaken by the Department of Special Education at Bowling Green State University.

Issues in Rural Staff Development

Regardless of location, both valuable inservice and appropriate staff development activities are difficult to provide to school personnel. Frequently, within any given setting, there are myriad issues that contribute to this difficulty such as the variance of staff needs, the quality of available personnel providing these activities, and the ability to plan adequate follow-up and follow-through activities that augment the teaching/learning accomplished through inservice or staff development. Of particular concern to rural schools are other problems that contribute to this difficulty in providing adequate service activities to school personnel. Problems that most of us are aware of include the isolation that is experienced by so many rural school districts, and the lack of attention that is paid to the needs of rural and small schools. This aspect of isolation results in a number of more specific problems that rural and small schools deal with - not experienced by urban and suburban schools - when they plan to give professional development opportunities to their school staffs.

Centers of higher education, both colleges and universities, are frequently located in urban and suburban locations; consequently, the rural and small school finds itself far removed from these resources, finds themselves cut off from the resources available to other school districts. This fact often impedes the development of strong and varied staff development activities in rural areas. As indicated by Berkeley and Dudlow (1991), inservice training for educators in rural schools is complicated by three factors: limited access to advanced training programs offered by colleges and universities; limited financial resources and support for travel to workshops, conferences, and other related professional development activities; and,

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because the attrition rate among educators in rural settings is so high, this prevents planning intensive ongoing staff development.

Other specific problem that interfere with the development of professional staff development programs by rural and small schools, and are problems not typically addressed by those providing the staff development include transportation barriers, cultural differences, geographic isolation, and the like. Many authors discuss the general problems involved with the provision of staff development, some focusing on particular problems of rural schools (e.g. Apps, 1991; Galbraith, 1990, 1991; Idol, 1983; Marrs, 1984; McKeachie, 1978). Inadequate staff development was cited by Helge (1981) as a major contributor to the personnel retention problems experienced in rural schools. Pointedly, Galbraith suggests that staff development may be a key to address the problems of attrition and retention of rural educators.

> Professional educator in rural America must be able to cope with sparsity, utilize community resources, be creative and visionary, and maintain a learner-centered orientation (Galbraith, 1992, p. 309).

These kinds of concerns must be addressed by a dynamic, responsive system of staff development.

Distance Education for Rural Schools

Distance education is becoming a potential alternative delivery method for many rural schools. School reform, state-sponsored curriculum reforms, state fiscal reductions, potential teacher shortages, and progress in the development of telecommunication technology have all helped to make distance education an inviting option for rural American schools (Barker, 1991). In 1987, there were fewer than ten states promoting distance learning programs. Currently, all 50 states have incorporated some type of distance education plan (Jordahl, 1991; Krebs, 1991).

Batey and Cowell (1986) describe distance education as a "catch all" phrase for something as old as correspondence courses to something as new as interactive instruction by satellite. Keegan (1990) described distance education as training approaches characterized by the separation of instructor and students. Another broad definition of distance education has been offered by Barker, Frisbie, and Patrick (1989) who view it as "the live simultaneous transmission of a master teacher's lessons from a host classroom or studio to multiple receiving site classrooms in distance locations." Regardless of definition, rural schools across the United States are beginning to use more distance learning technologies to help them offer elective or required courses for which a certified teacher is not available, or to deliver inservice training for faculty and staff.

Because there are a number of distance education technology systems available to rural schools, it's important that rural school administrators and staff members consider which system(s) best meet(s) their needs. Barker (1992) suggests that school systems address the following questions prior to selecting a distance education technology system:

1. "Is the system to be used primarily as enrichment, or will it be used as the chief means of instruction in a particular class or curriculum?

2. Will the system be expected to fulfill state-mandated curriculum requirements, or will it be used only to offer elective courses?

3. Will the system be used by specific types of students (e.g. advanced placement, homebound, or general course students), or will the system be used by all types of students?

4. Is the system expected to be used to deliver inservice training for the staff, and/or to provide classes for the community?" (p. 5-6)

Barker suggests that schools consider these questions relative to short-term needs and long-term goals. Additional concerns cited by Barker include:

1. Who controls the system?
2. What will the system cost?
3. What courses will be offered through the system?
4. How will scheduling be arranged?
5. What should class sizes be?
6. What level of teacher-student interaction is projected?
7. Who will be selected as tele-teachers?
8. Who will be selected as classroom facilitators?
9. How will grading be accomplished?
10. How will class materials be routed?

According to Rios (1986), delivery options for distance education can fit into four categories:

- Print-based

- Audio-based

- Video-based

- Computer-based

Rios notes that among the most popular technologies being used today are:

- Audio teleconferencing

- Videotaped lessons

- Interactive video
- Computer networks

Delivery of these technologies can be accomplished by electronic mail, satellite transmission, cable T.V., instructional T.V. fixed service, and computer fax.

A more specific definition of some of the interactive distance technologies have been addressed by Barker (1992) who provided the following definitions:

"Audio Conferencing:	telephone contact between two or more sites, usually connected by means of a telephone bridge and via speaker phones
Audiographic Systems:	combination of an audio conference used with graphic support, such as electronic blackboard, writing tablet, still video, or computer-generated visual material
Broadcast Television:	transmission of picture (video) and sound (audio) over standard UHF and VHF television channels
Direct Broadcast Satellite (DBS):	full motion television programming transmitted via satellite directly to the user, who receives video and audio information using a satellite antenna or receiver dish
Fiber Optics:	a rapidly emerging medium that transmits voice, full-motion video, and data by sending light impulses through ultra-thin glass fibers... permits two-way, full motion video, and two-way audio interaction between participating sites
Instructional T.V. Fixed Services:	ITFS is a one-way microwave technology capable of serving limited geographical areas (maximum distance is a radius of 20 miles)... interactivity requires the use of telephones" (p. 15-16)

While rural school systems explore the various options available to them for distance education, they should bear in mind the advantages as well as the disadvantages of distance education programs. Howard, Ault, Knowlton, and Swall (1992) identify several benefits as well as cautions associated with distance education through technologies. Among the benefits cited were: support services to teacher trainees; support for teacher inservice; support services for administrators; support services for parents; support services for support personnel; and direct services for students. The direct service to students include offering courses to remote areas that are not able to offer such courses due to limited numbers of qualified faculty in specific content areas. Direct services also include distance education for students with severe medical or disabling conditions in rural or remote areas who have difficulties attending formal school classes.

Howard et al. also identify several cautions to take when planning distance education. Among their concerns are the questions of whether or not distance education has proven to be an effective teaching method for all students, and whether or not distance education may be a direct violation of the spirit of inclusion/integration found in PL 94-142. Howard et. al. summarize their position by encouraging educators to use caution, but to embrace the provision of new opportunities such as distance education to enhance learning in rural and remote areas. The rapid advances in modern telecommunication technologies offer exciting new possibilities for rural preservice and inservice teachers.

Project CREST: A Distance Education Program for Rural Preservice and Inservice Teachers

One example of a preservice/inservice training program that explores the use of distance education for rural faculties is Project CREST (Collaboration in Rural Education for Special Teachers). CREST is a four year federal grant awarded by the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services to the Special Education Department at Bowling Green State University. The major goals of Project CREST are: 1) to train teachers to effectively meet the academic, social, vocational, and ancillary service needs of rural special education students; 2) to improve the quality of training to rural special education preservice trainees; and, 3) to assist in the recruitment and retention of teaching personnel specifically trained for rural special education. In accomplishing these goals, Project CREST trains participants to enhance service delivery systems for: assessment; physical therapy; occupational therapy; speech/language therapy; community resource utilization; and consultation with interdisciplinary personnel, support staff, and parents. Project CREST participants also broaden their instructional skills to accommodate cross-age, cross-categorical service delivery. Finally, participants learn to identify problems and develop solutions unique to special education service delivery in rural settings. Project CREST provides participants with a unique opportunity to demonstrate and refine knowledge and skills developed collaboratively by agency personnel, parents, and university instructors. Participants demonstrate competencies and skills in practicum sites. This field-based component is interwoven throughout all coursework.

Project CREST serves up to 10 teachers or CREST participants, located in southern Ohio, while CREST faculty are located at Bowling Green State University in northwest Ohio. CREST faculty spend one week each month on-site in Portsmouth, Ohio to deliver instruction. During the three remaining weeks, participants meet for one evening each week at the Pilasco-Ross SERRC for class. For weekly class meetings, the following distance learning options are used.

- A Polycom Soundstation ($991.85)
- Two 7100/80 Power Macintosh Computers with AV capability ($3,623 each)
- One Flexcam multimedia camera (Provides state-of-the-art technology for applications such as video newsletters, instructional programs, reports, presentations, scanning and video annotation. $595.00)
- One Quickcam digital video and still camera (Easy-to-use digital video and still camera. Uses direct digital imaging techniques to create grayscale QuickTime movies and still pictures. $94.12)
- Cu-SeeMe, a desktop video conferencing system developed at Cornell University with the optional audio program, Maven. (By public domain)

The primary advantages of this technology are its costs and portability. Relative to costs, many teleconference or distance learning centers require satellite transmitters and receivers, fiber optic cable, technical staff, and significant computer support to operate the system. In contrast, Cu-SeeMe is currently free since the video conference program relies on the Internet for transmission. Typically, there are no long distance telephone charges since connections via phone lines are paid for differently. Since cost for staff development would be a significant consideration for rural schools, use of this configuration may provide a low-cost approach in the delivery of professional training in such schools.

Further, geographic barriers common to rural and remote schools may be overcome through the [illegible] of this teleconferencing configuration. Cu-SeeMe, running on the Internet network sends and receives video to and from a central reflector, typically a Sun workstation equipped with software developed at Cornell. Through modern technology used in distance learning, rural barriers such as terrain, distance, or weather may be overcome.

Concluding Remarks

The need for special educators in rural settings to have more comprehensive preparation is increasingly obvious. Many resources, services, and specialized personnel are frequently unavailable to the rural handicapped student on a timely and consistent basis. Consequently, it has been shown that special education staff in rural settings are required to possess broader and more diverse skills, to be more able to operate independent of other special educators and other special education services, and to be highly skilled at adaptation and accommodation, as well as a host of other more specific abilities. In order to address these needs, university teacher training programs and rural schools can collaborate through distance education programs to promote innovative preservice and inservice education. While still in our infancy relative to the sophisticated use of technology, Project CREST has begun to break barriers that traditionally impede professionals. Moreover, through our utilization of technological advancements, we have begun to seriously meet the needs of rural school personnel in the area of staff development and inservice.

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Robert L. Morgan
Chadron State College
Chadron, NE

James E. Whorton
The University of Southern Mississippi
Hattiesburg, MS

Patricia A. Cruzeiro
Chadron State College
Chadron, NE

OUTCOME-BASED EDUCATION AND THE SPECIAL EDUCATION LEARNER

Since the advent of the Education for Handicapped Children Act of 1975, special education has moved from the provision of special education in restrictive settings to the general education environment. During the 1970's, this movement, referred to as mainstreaming, was to return learners from special education classrooms to nonacademic classes, such as physical education and art. In the 1980's, children were placed in more rigorous courses with a primary emphasis on socialization. This was referred to as integration. Presently, schools are placing learners with special education needs into the general education classroom and providing special education services in that environment.

The drive from segregated settings has come not necessarily from governmental mandate but various movements in general and special education. For instance, in general education movements such as restructuring, modernization, effective schools, America 2000, and more recently Goals 2000 one finds similar concepts with special education trends. These include the Regular Education Initiative (REI), General Education Initiative (GEI), and unified system of education. Each offers a different approach, yet these movements share the concept of providing special education services to all learners, including those with disabilities. An example of this approach is Vermont's Green Mountain Challenge (Kay, Fitzgerald, Mellencamp, & Biggam, 1993). Vermont's Department of Education specifically addressed the needs of all their learners including those with disabilities in their reform process.

The reform process has culminated in the development of providing individualized education to all learners. This is best exemplified by Outcome-Based Education (OBE). This is best exemplified by one of the initiators of the OBE movement, William G. Spady (1984):

> "Excellence occurs when the instructional system is able to provide the individual learner with an appropriate level of challenge and a realistic opportunity to succeed on a

> frequent and continual basis for each instructional goal in the program."

OBE is a process approach which attempts to meet the needs of all learners (Brandt, 1993). For many school districts, OBE has become a volatile issue. Rather than use OBE, school personnel and community members have used learner outcomes, target goals, modernization, and restructuring as descriptors of the same or similar processes.

The present determined if schools in the rural panhandle of Nebraska,western South Dakota, and eastern Wyoming which have completed an OBE process did consider the needs of learners with disabilities in their planning.

Method

Subjects

Departments of education in the states of Nebraska, South Dakota, and Wyoming were contacted. These states were contacted as there was an impetus for schools to complete an OBE process. The names of rural school districts in each state which completed an OBE process were identified. Rural was applied to districts

> when the number of inhabitants is [was] less than 150 per square mile or when located in counties with 60% or more of the population living in communities no larger than 5,000 inhabitants. Districts with more than 10,000 students and those within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), as determined by the U.S. Census Bureau, are [were] not considered rural. (Helge, 1983)

Subsequently, school district superintendents were contacted by letter and requested to participate in the evaluation of the OBE or similar process utilized by the school. The protocol of the evaluation was explained to the superintendent and he/she was requested to identify a principal, teacher, and community member who participated in the process.

It was explained that the protocol will be uniformly utilized with the each, and that the confidentiality of the participants and the school would be maintained. The superintendent was given the option of receiving the final results of the study.

Protocol

The individuals the superintendent identified were contacted by letter. They were requested to participate in the study. Assurances of anonymity and confidentiality were shared with each. If the participant agreed, the attached protocol was administered.

Results and Discussion

Based on preliminary results, local and state agencies are driving the reform process in most of the rural schools surveyed. Administrators, teachers, and community members indicated that learners with special education needs were considered during the process. Yet, these same respondents were reticent in stating all students with special education needs should be placed in typical classroom settings utilizing a typical curriculum. They stated such decisions should be based on the individual's label or disability.

Although most respondents seemed to support the concept of OBE, they were reluctant in providing the same support to the idea of inclusion. The only sure way of determining whether such efforts resulted in real changes has yet to be determined. Kay, Fitzgerald, Mellencamp, and Biggam (1993) identified a technique to determine whether or not learners with disabilities were included in the reform process. This involves determining the extent of inclusion within the school. Specifically, this entails evaluating the consideration of learners with disabilities during the OBE process and later comparing the number of those individuals found in the typical classroom. Some additional questions which may be considered include:

1. Does the OBE process really address the needs of all learners?
2. How does the inclusion of learners with disabilities relate to demographic factors, including size of school district?
3. How do the obtained data relate to that of larger districts?

TARGET GOALS/STUDENT LEARNER OUTCOMES EDUCATION SURVEY

Thank you for participating in our survey. This survey will provide you with an opportunity to describe the consideration provided learners with disabilities during the Target Goals/Student Learner Outcomes process. We want to obtain your opinion on several key issues in the field and your perception of factors that are involved in the process. Your responses are needed by other professionals in their efforts to complete this process.

When finished, remember to return your completed questionnaire to us in the pre-addressed/stamped envelope. All responses are strictly confidential.

Instructions: Please complete the following questions by checking the appropriate blank.

1. What best describes your present involvement within the local school?

   ☐ board member
   ☐ superintendent
   ☐ principal
   ☐ teacher
   ☐ other, please specify; ____________________

2. How many years have you participated in your school in this capacity?

   ☐ two or less
   ☐ two to five
   ☐ five to ten
   ☐ more than ten

3. What was your involvement in the process your school recently completed?

   ☐ steering committee member
   ☐ committee member
   ☐ coordinator of Target Goals/Student Learner Outcomes process activities
   ☐ participant in Target Goals/Student Learner Outcomes process activities
   ☐ other, please specify; ____________________

4. How long did the process take to complete in your district?

   ☐ less than one year
   ☐ one year
   ☐ two years
   ☐ three years
   ☐ other, please specify; ____________________

5. What was the guiding force behind your district's Target Goals/Student Learner Outcomes process?

   ☐ administration directed
   ☐ local school committees
   ☐ state guidelines
   ☐ organizationally directed (please speciffy (eg., local education agency, area education agency, etc.) ____________________

Please check the box which best represents your response to the statements below. If you are not sure of your response, please leave the question unmarked.

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
1. In my school, every child, regardless of disability, belongs in a typical classroom.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. All children need an individualized instructional program.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Resources are provided to each child to explore individual interests in the school environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Nondisabled children can benefit from friendships with children who have disabilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. In your school, general educators and special educators have integrated their resources to work together as a unified team to benefit all children.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The administration in your school creates a working climate in which staff are supported as they provide assistance to each other.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Children with disabilities are actively encouraged to participate in the academic areas of the school.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Support services are altered for students with disabilities as their needs change throughout the school year.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Parents of children with disabilities are made part of the school community.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Children with disabilities have a separate curriculum from the typical curriculum.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Teachers are afraid of being presumed incompetent if they seek peer collaboration in working with learners with disabilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Children with disabilities are included in as many testing and evaluation experiences with their nondisabled classmates as possible.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. The needs of individuals with disabilities are considered in the process.	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Some students with disabilities are teased or considered outcasts.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Special educators are isolated in separate rooms or departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Special educators have separate budgets and/or supervisors.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. We cluster learners with disabilities in special groups or classrooms.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. We provide services based on an individual's disability label.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Learners with disabilities can benefit from friendships with typical learners.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Learners with disabilities are placed in the regular classroom without concern for their individual needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Separate PTA and/or newsletters are supplied for parents of learners with disabilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. The full school curriculum is modified to meet the needs of learners with disabilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Learners with disabilities are not included in testing and evaluation procedures with nondisabled classmates.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Learners with disabilities were not considered during the process.	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Learners with disabilities are actively encouraged to participate in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please write any comments you would like to share in the space provided.

Thank you very much for completing this form!

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Sheila Marino
Robert Monahan
Harold Jones
Jill Hunter
Lander University
Greenwood, SC

A COLLABORATIVE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM MODEL FOR RURAL INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS

Introduction

There is very little that one can claim as peculiar cognitive processes employed by a rural student compared to a city student in inclusive classrooms. What does make different demands on a learner is the attempt to base instruction on problem solving through an integrated curriculum. The characteristics of rural learners in inclusive classrooms match the integrated problem-solving curriculum.

At a base level of cognitive processing the demands of an integrated problem-solving curriculum are similar to the demands of lifelong learning. The learner must leave school with thinking processes that are, at least, analogous to the processes needed for the workplace. The workplace needs adaptable people with well developed problem-solving capabilities. If that is true and the integrated curriculum can provide the necessary experiences we must ask, where will we gain the time to accomplish these lofty goals?

One of the benefits of integrating curriculum is the time gained. Imagine a science teacher providing an experience with rolling marbles down inclined planes to discover the relationship between angle of incline and the force of an object rolling down the inclined plane. The next step might be using the test results to develop graphs for math along with writing narratives of the results of the science experiment for an English lesson. Through one activity the teacher has provided science, math, and language arts instruction. In this way efficiency is increased as well as potential learning. The teacher spends less time with individual lessons and gains time to interact with the students. "A perusal of typical curriculum materials suggests that there is considerable room to provide students with opportunities to learn multiple areas of knowledge simultaneously" (CTVG, 1993, p. 35).

Much of the knowledge we learn in school is through individual concepts and procedures that are expected to be remembered (CTVG, 1993). This inert type of knowledge leads to failure to apply the individually learned concepts. "Basically, students need a deeper understanding of why, how and when various concepts and procedures are useful, and they need the kind of experiences that will allow them to develop organized knowledge structures that are richly interconnected" (CTVG, 1993). The integrated curriculum can provide these interconnected experiences.

"A third reason for integrating instruction is that it allows students to see how common concepts and methods of inquiry may be relevant to a number of areas" (CTVG, 1993). Educators constantly talk of transfer of learning, and transfer is facilitated by situations that require problem solving. "The best way to do this is, presumably, to provide students with problem-solving experiences that are similar to situations they will encounter later on (Bransford, Franks, Vye & Sherwood, 1989, p. 493). The typical verbal problem is not the type of problem Bransford is talking about. The problem-solving situation may also include problem finding and discovery. The obvious question is, "How does the rural student in inclusive classrooms fit these ideas regarding integration?"

Fitzgerald and Bloodsworth (1994) report a list of characteristics of rural students. Briefly, that list is: global learner, cooperative, learning seen as social, aversion to individual recognition, difficulty with arbitrary deadlines, prefer oral information, and a tendency toward making subjective conclusions. These learner characteristics closely match the goals of the integrated curriculum.

Cooperative problem-solving groups should be facilitated by the rural learners' cooperativeness. Cooperative groups also fit the preference for a social situation. Group work tends to reduce individual recognition in favor of group recognition which fits the preference of the rural learner in inclusive classrooms. Problem-solving allows for many paths to lead to a conclusion which is a perfect match for the rural learner. The interaction in cooperative groups as well as the variety of approaches, again, fits the rural learner. Lastly, if the problems are realistic and show applications to the work place the rural learner is more likely to engage in the activity with enthusiasm. A supportive classroom atmosphere conducted with humor, and a willingness to adapt to cooperatively determined deadlines and procedures should produce a learning environment where rural learners in inclusive classrooms will accomplish important goals. The integrated problem-solving curriculum model provides such an avenue for the rural students.

Integrated Curriculum Model

Genuine learning, according to Beane, occurs when we interact with the environment in such a way that what we experience becomes integrated into our system of meanings (Beane, 1991). According to Beane, curriculum integration has two aspects. "First, integration implies wholeness and unity rather than separation and fragmentation. Second, real curriculum integration occurs when young people confront personally meaningful questions and engage in experiences related to those questions - experiences they can integrate into their own system of meanings" (Beane, 1991, p. 9).

Fogarty lists the integrated curriculum model as one that provides a foundation that helps students to make valuable connections while learning (Fogarty, 1991). In this model interdisciplinary topics are rearranged around overlapping concepts and emergent patterns and designs (Fogarty, 1991, p. 64). Separate subject disciplines are not as evident when using this model. As with all models for curriculum development, it is imperative that the individual needs of all the students are considered during this crucial planning stage.

The Interdisciplinary Concept Model, a step-by-step approach for developing integrated units of study, was developed by Jacobs and Borland. With this model, they hoped to make students aware of the relationships among disciplines as they investigate the subject matter. The steps include:

1. Selecting an organizing center
2. Brainstorming associations
3. Establishing guiding questions to serve as a scope and sequence
4. Writing activities for implementation

(Jacobs, 1989, p. 53-65)

Beane cautions that true integration is not just joining disciplines across subject areas but integrative curriculum dissolves the dividing lines between these subjects. This dissolution still provides for maintaining and even enhancing some of the knowledge and skills traditionally defined within the specific disciplines (Beane, 1993).

In planning an interdisciplinary unit the more time and effort expended during the initial stage makes the implementation much easier. Some of the key ideas to plan for follow:

- Guiding questions based on theme
- Organizational visuals
- Skills to be developed
- Activities for all levels
- Variety in choice of activities for all students (modalities)
- Parent communication
- Management sheets for students (rubrics, etc.)
- Variety in student groupings
- Learning styles accommodations
- Multi-varied resources
- Variety of assessment
- Reflective opportunities for students and teacher throughout the unit

These are just a few that may be overlooked during the initial planning stage. Once again, think how everything fits together to form a broad impression which imitates everyday life.

Model Evaluation

McGaghie reported that most professional evaluations present problems. The research has shown that most professionals typically cover a narrow range of practice situations, are biased toward assessment of acquired knowledge, devote little attention to direct assessment of practical skills and in many cases measurement problems exist (McGaghie, 1991).

In determining whether or not programs should be started, maintained, dropped or chosen from several alternatives summative evaluation documents the attainment of program goals and is used most often by administrators (Scriven, 1967; Popham, 1988; Posavac & Carey, 1989).

Considerable research supports the overall efficacy of consultation with regular and special education on curriculum issues (Idol & West, 1987; West & Idol, 1987; and Medway & Updyke, 1985). Many of these findings support the basic premise that the major impact of the consultation theory is indirect.

Idol and Idol-Maestal identified some areas of instruction that have proved to facilitate the transfer of remediated behaviors from the direct service setting to grade-level rural and urban classrooms. These included the areas of data-based instruction, systematic structuring of learning environments, mastery learning, direct curricular instruction, an integrative curriculum, and programming for behavior generalization (Idol, 1989, Idol-Maestal, 1981). As we view the integrated curriculum model in rural inclusive classrooms, what are some factors that promote and deter the implementation of the model?

Factors In Model Implementation

There are several factors that can promote or deter the implementation of a collaborative integrated curriculum model. How educators view teaching, collaboration, students, and the curriculum are substantial factors. Their paradigms or frameworks of thought establishes or defines the boundaries by which change will occur (Barker, 1993). Barker indicates that a paradigm shift or a change to a new set of boundaries or views is frequently necessitated for success (Barker, 1993, p. 37). Since habits are powerful factors in our lives Covey states that they can also influence if we change and how we change. He views habits as the intersection of knowledge, skill, and desire (Covey, 1989). Knowledge is the theoretical paradigm, the what to do and the why. Skill is the how to do. And desire is the motivation, the want to do. In order to make something a habit in our lives, we have to have all three (Covey, 1989, p. 47). Pike states, however, that educators are not always wholly comfortable enough to abandon traditional approaches or habits for the unknown (Pike, 1994).

Parents and administrators may be supportive or resistant to change. Some parents want their children taught the same way that they were taught when they were in school (Pike, 1994). There may be concern in both groups over accountability and if a change in curriculum will affect positively or negatively the performance and test scores of the students. Administrators and teachers also cite time and resources as factors that influence the curriculum models that they utilized in their schools/classrooms. According to Farr a basal approach to instruction gives a great deal of support for beginning and experienced teachers. Basals provide lesson plans, sources for enrichment activities, and evaluation measures (Farr, 1987). If a collaborative integrated model is followed educators report that a larger part of the curriculum and resources would have to be planned.

Each of the factors, cited by research as barriers, can be considered as roadblocks to change or as temporary inconveniences to overcome based on the benefits reaped with students in rural inclusive classrooms.

Conclusion

Research has demonstrated that students learn best when they are involved in activities which are of genuine interest to them and build upon their prior knowledge and background; when learning is interrelated across the curriculum and serves to meet their individual needs. Using a collaborative integrated curriculum model teachers and administrators will be able to meet the challenge of inclusive rural settings by building on the prior knowledge, language, unique experiences, and interest of their students from rural communities and learn how to combat "departmentalization constraints" to facilitate "connections" between content strands for the meaningful achievement of all students today and in the future.

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Mary Savelsbergh, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Professional Studies in Education
California State University, Chico
Chico, California
95929-0465
916-898.6281

MEETING CHANGING RURAL NEEDS: RECRUITMENT AND PREPARATION OF CULTURALLY DIVERSE SPECIALIST CADRES IN AN AWARD WINNING RURAL INTERNSHIP PROGRAM

MARCH 17, 1995
TROPICANA RESORT
LAS VEGAS, NEVADA

The 16th Annual Report of Congress on the Implementation of the Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) reports that fewer teachers are credentialed to teach an increasing number of students with disabilities. This 1991-1992 comprehensive study of students with disabilities, compiled by the U.S. Department of Education, shows the great need for programs to prepare special education teachers. The Special Edge (1994), a publication by the California Department of Education, reported a shortage of approximately 27,000 teachers in California. Teachers of students with learning disabilities; language, speech and hearing specialists; and teachers of students with serious emotional disturbance are in most demand.

In addition, institutes of higher education report that fewer and fewer minority students are enrolling in special education teacher preparation programs than in previous years (National Information Center for Children & Youth with Handicaps, NICHY, 1987). By the beginning of the 21st century, one-third of the school children and college-age population nationwide will be non-white (Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE). This reconfirms the growing cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity of our nation's schools, including our special education classrooms.

The California Department of Education "Fingertip Facts on Education in California" (1990-1991) report, reveals the imbalance between the racial and ethnic distribution in public schools among teachers and students. The Intersegmental Coordinating Council (1993) reports that 54% of California's K-12 students belong to ethnic minority groups. One out of every six children in elementary schools in California were born in another country. Furthermore, the Hispanic student population accounts for 34.4% in our California schools, while only 7.7% of the teachers are Hispanic. The demographic profile of new teachers in California is very similar to the national profile; that is, they are primarily white, 25 years old females who have come from suburban or rural settings.

Districts are discovering that it isn't easy to find minority candidates to fill teaching positions. One problem is that the pool of qualified minority educators is shrinking. In North Carolina, for example, the percentage of teachers who are black declined from 21 percent in 1980 to 16 percent in 1991. Many prospective minority teachers are lured by better-paying jobs in the private sector or are reluctant to enter a system that is undergoing dramatic changes. Nationwide, the teacher turnover rate is six percent annually, but in rural areas that figure increases to a frustrating 30-50 percent, with isolation as the most common reason for rural teachers to leave (Stone, 1990).

Rural Special Education teacher recruitment is difficult even in normal circumstances, but the recruitment of rural special education teachers who are culturally diverse is even more challenging.
The results of a national review of special education preservice preparation programs indicate that only 4 percent of prospective special education teachers were black and less that 2 percent were Hispanic.

California State University, Chico (CSU,C) has taken the lead in an aggressive training program for rural and remote Northern California school districts. Qualified teachers are hired by the districts on an emergency special education credential to meet the needs of students. A successful preservice and inservice intern training program through campus course work and via television satellites has offered an exemplary teacher training program. This special education internship program, "Finding and Keeping the Best," now in its fourth year, received the 1993 American Council of Rural Special Education Award "for its exemplary preservices and inservice teaching training program." It has prepared local rural special education teachers to remain in their rural and remote school districts and thus rural education has progressed.

Our next area of concentration is the training of qualified cultural diverse special education teachers for the rural and remote schools in

Northern California. Federal funding was received to ensure that rural California has a teaching force that reflects the cultural diversity of the community it serves. Special Education is part of a relatively new Department of Professional Studies in Education on the CSU,C campus which includes Bilingual-Multicultural Programs, Upward Bound, Teacher Diversity Projects, and the Reading Specialist Programs. The new Concurrent Teacher Specialist Program combines special education, elementary education (the Multiple Subjects Credential) and BCLAD/CLAD (Bilingual/Cross-Cultural, Language, and Academic Development). This innovative model has been lauded by the state as one that will prepare teachers to meet the diverse and complex needs of tomorrow's children. To assure that financial barriers are not keeping individuals from entering teaching fields, scholarship support is offered to qualified students from underrepresented ethnic groups. Among the objectives is to prepare the underrepresented teachers to meet the needs of rural multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic pupils with disabilities. It serves to offer a long-term response to the need for specialists who both reflect and assist the changing populations of rural northern California.

This project (described below) will prepare special educators in a geographic area of 36,000 square miles constituting fully one-fourth of the state's land mass. The size of the state of Indiana, this region is rural and sparsely populated with a density averaging 18 persons per square mile, compared to 130 persons per square mile for the state as a whole. (State Department of Finance, 1990). The region is mountainous, making access frequently difficult. Like other California rural areas, this region is experiencing a shifting of demographics as a result of changing patterns statewide. The area served by this grant includes 12 rural counties, five of which are state immigration centers for Hmong and Meo first-generation families, one which includes a Modoc Indian reservation, and four which serve large Hispanic/Latino populations, including migrant families (see Figure 1).

The Concurrent Special Education/Multiple Subjects/CLAD or BCLAD Program

The Concurrent Special Education/Multiple Subjects/CLAD or BCLAD credentialing program is a partnership between the Special Education, the Multiple Subjects and the Bilingual and Crosscultural departments. In addition, the special education faculty at California State University, Chico met with representatives from school districts in the service area and discussed program and personnel needs. An advisory board, consisting of administrators, teachers, parents and cultural diverse university students designed a program based on the results of a competency needs assessment.

This needs assessment was conducted during three consecutive years (1991, 1992, 1993) and verified the need for improved quality of personnel. In particular, schools sought special educators who would welcome changing rural demographics and be committed to serving all pupils. The mere filling of vacancies with teachers was considered an insufficient response to the personnel crisis; the education of exceptional children was seen to be no more effective or appropriate than the quality of the teacher allowed.

The most critical issue was the development of a successful site-based teacher training program. The three semester teacher training program requires student placement in schools during each semester. This accelerated, intensive program requires that students be carefully selected. Criteria include a GPA of 3.0 during the last 30 units; three letters of reference; passing score on the California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST); a writing sample and a successful interview with university faculty and a member of an underrepresented ethnic group.

The proposal, titled "Meeting Changing Rural Needs: Recruitment and Preparation of Culturally Diverse Specialist Cadres" was awarded by the United States Department of Education. It supports the National Education Goals by helping these individuals reach the high levels of achievement called for in the document Goals 2000: Educate America. It was designed to prepare special education teachers (especially culturally diverse teachers) to deliver a quality education to children in northern California.

Four main objectives are emphasized in the training program:

1. To develop long-term sources of supply for culturally diverse rural special educators that results in the recruitment of qualified trainees from underrepresented ethnic minorities.
2. To initiate a boldly redesigned structure that efficiently prepares California special educators to meet the needs of rural multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic pupils with disabilities.
3. To retain teachers from underrepresented ethnic groups through training as special educators.
4. To place the graduates in careers as rural special educators.

Highlights of the Concurrent program are:

- Integration of knowledge and skill bases of special education, bilingual, and general education
- Early school experiences and career exploration
- Group or cadre affiliation
- Research-based instruction
- Students teaching with guidance of a professional role model
- Mentoring induction

The first cadre of twenty students will be selected this spring for the 1995-1996 academic year. The application process consists of the following: (1) an application packet detailing the applicant's GPA, work experience, three letters of reference, a statement of professional goals and personal summary, passing score on the CBEST, (2) a short biographic sketch, (3) a written statement and a personal interview with a panel of faculty members, (4) a scholarship application for students of underrepresented ethnic groups, (5) proof of ethnicity. After successful completion of the application requirements, the cultural diverse students will be awarded a substantial scholarship for each semester.

The Concurrent Special Education/Multiple Subjects/CLAD or BCLAD Program offers students multiple credentials: a Multiple Subjects credential, a Special Education Credential and students will be certified in CLAD (Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development) or BCLAD (Bilingual). Most of the students are Liberal Studies or Child Development majors. Before students are admitted to the program, they must complete Multiple subjects and CLAD or BCLAD prerequisites (see attached figure 2). The two prerequisite courses for Special Education are: an overview of Special Education and a Field Practicum. After completing these two courses, students will begin the three semester credentialing program. After successfully completing the three semesters the student has earned a preliminary Special Education credential (Learning Handicap), Multiple Subjects credential, and is certified in CLAD or B/CLAD. The student may teach after the first three semesters, and has five years to complete a fourth semester of coursework for a clear Learning Handicap credential.

Each semester consists of 16 credit hours including field experience. Practicum training sites were selected based on approval of school district and site level leadership personnel. Schools within a twenty-five mile radius of campus were selected as training sites for the first semester of student teaching in the initial implementation of the project. This proximity ensures adequate access for supervision as well as University and public school collaboration. As the project is tested, sites with even greater ethnic diversity, but at greater distance from campus, will be used. As teacher candidates complete initial training and process into an on-the-job induction year, they may be hired in any of the University's 12 rural counties. Induction-level support will be ensured through use of an existing rural mentor network.

Concurent Program Overview

Semester 1

FIELD EXPERIENCES IN: Crosscultural General Education Setting

INTEGRATED COURSEWORK IN:

- Curriculum and Instruction
- Literacy Development
- Classroom Management
- Multicultural Issues

Semester 2

STUDENT TEACHING IN: Crosscultural General and Special Education Settings

INTEGRATED COURSEWORK IN:

- Collaboration
- Diagnosis
- Assessment
- Adaptation of Curriculum and Instructional

Semester 3

SUPERVISED TEACHING IN: Special Education

INTEGRATED COURSESWORK IN:

- Technology
- Reading Diagnosis and Intervention
- Transition
- Vocational and Career Education
- Home, Parent and Community Relations

Semester 4

(teacher has five years to complete these courses)

ON-THE-JOB SUPPORT Employed as a teacher Intern with support of a mentor

COURSEWORK

- Consultation
- Staff Development
- Advanced Law and Regulations

Research by Graham (1987) revealed that culturally diverse students benefit more directly from a teacher role model when the teacher is a member of the student's own racial, ethnic and language group. Yet it is possible with the declining diversity of teachers that a student could complete the K-12 school experience and never meet a teacher of his/her ethnic or linguistic group. The shortage of culturally diverse teachers is a tremendous loss to all students; but for students of underrepresented groups, this loss is particularly detrimental. Culturally diverse children in rural areas need special education teachers who can be role models, providing cultural insights and sensitivities for all pupils. Who will better understand the Hispanic, Asian and Afro-American students than the Hispanic, Asian or Afro-American teacher?

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Gia S. Deasy
West Virginia University
Morgantown, West Virginia

PLANNING FOR CHALLENGING BEHAVIORS: A METHOD TO THE MADNESS

The Madness

Rural educators often experience frustration and feelings of inadequacy when attempting to provide services for students with challenging behaviors. Their frustrations are often compounded by the critical shortages of personnel serving as behavioral specialists and the limited access rural areas have to highly specialized services. Limited access to qualified technical assistance is a common complaint of educators attempting to provide services for students with challenging behaviors (Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch,1990). Neither regular education nor special education has adequately addressed these frustrations. Although students identified under the emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) label should receive specialized services addressing their behavioral challenges, Grosenick and Huntze (1980) found that approximately three-fourths of the school-age EBD population were not provided with special education services.

The only "service" many students experiencing behavioral challenges receive is "exposure" to the school discipline system. Data from a recent survey by Sugai and Chard (1994) indicate that most schools' discipline systems are reactive in nature. Few discipline systems are designed to teach social skills or desirable replacement behaviors. Their focus is not on proactive interventions which prevent behavior problems. These discipline systems do not address maintenance or generalization of positive behavior. Most school discipline systems merely focus on punishing students who violate classroom and school rules.

Lewis, Chard and Scott (1994) argue for a "schoolwide concerted group effort" to improve children's behaviors and to reintegrate students with EBD back into general education placements. Practical models which utilize a team approach to develop, implement, and monitor individual behavior change plans have been successful in reintegrating students in the mainstream and proactively dealing with all students who present challenging behaviors (Colvin, Kameenui & Sugai, 1994). Collaborative efforts between/among special educators, general educators and parents in the planning stages ensures ownership of the behavior change plan and joint responsibility for identifying and implementing behavioral intervention strategies that are both effective and feasible. These collaborative efforts would facilitate generalization and maintenance of appropriate behaviors.

The Method

A study by Savage, Wienke, & Miller (1994) found behavior problems to be the most significant and frequently addressed problem by rural general educators with consulting teachers. The following steps and procedures for planning, documenting, implementing and monitoring behavior plans for students with challenging behaviors is a direct response to this study and the needs of rural West Virginia special and general educators. The guidesheets and suggested formats used in this presentation have been field tested with novice behavior planning teams.

Teams

Teams should consist of teachers who interact with the student experiencing behavior challenges as well as selected teachers who will work as support personnel or who can provide objective feedback to the team. Parents are also members of this team in order to secure family support and opportunities for generalization from school to home.

Team Interview

The team must first conduct an interview session with the teacher(s) having the most contact with the student. The teacher should explain the student's problematic behavior and note all circumstances surrounding the behavioral performance. The team poses questions to assist the interviewee (teacher) in operationalizing the student's behavior. It is very common for the initial comments offered by the interviewee to be somewhat vague or abstract. The team's support and questioning work to yield a concrete observable measurable problem behavior. The incompatible desirable replacement behavior should also be identified through team questioning after each and every problem behavior is noted. This will ensure that the team produces not only a list of problematic behaviors but a list of desirable replacement behaviors which can serve as a guide to alert parents ,students and teachers of the behavioral expectations at school.

Prioritizing Behaviors

The interview process is likely to yield a lengthy list of problem behaviors. It is not uncommon for teams to mistakenly focus energies on insignificant behavior while ignoring other problems that require immediate attention. Therefore, it is imperative that the team assess the behavior list and prioritize the identified behavior according to actual occurrence of behavior and impact or importance of the behavior to avoid "barking up the wrong tree".

If there is no data verifying the frequency of the behavior occurrence, the team should declare a data collection period. The listed problematic behaviors can be explored according to duration or frequency depending on the dimensions of the behavior. A team member can serve as the observer and collect this data or the teacher may be able to continue interacting with the student and collect this information for the next team meeting.

The team must also collect data on the desirable replacement behavior. This data may be used to assist the team in determining if the student has the replacement behavior in his/her behavioral repertoire and/or provide evidence that these desirable behaviors are not occurring at an acceptable rate. If the desirable behavior is occurring frequently and the problem behavior still exists the team may recognize the need to establish an alternate replacement behavior match for the problem behavior.

Once data is collected the team can use this data to rank behaviors according to probability of occurrence and importance. Problem behaviors exhibiting a medium to high probability of occurrence and ranked as medium to high on the importance scale are targeted as priority behaviors. These behaviors and their desirable incompatible matches (replacement behaviors) become the focus of the student's behavior plan and the team's energy for planning interventions.

Categorizing Behavioral Strategies

Interventions are then considered within the following three categories: (1) positive reinforcer strategies; (2) punishers; (3) proactive/preventive strategies. Positive reinforcer strategies such as contracts and pointcards can be used with students who currently have the desirable replacement behaviors in their repertoires but exhibit such desirable behavior inconsistently. Punishers may be used if the mere focus on the desirable incompatible behavior is not sufficient to deter the performance of the undesirable behavior and this behavior can not be ignored. Perhaps the most important category of behavioral interventions is proactive/preventive strategies. This category consists of environmental or structural modifications that would inhibit the problem behavior and strategies which teach the desirable behavior such as social skill training. These strategies are imperative for students who do not exhibit any evidence of the replacement behavior in their behavioral performances.

Teams must determine strategies within all three categories of behavioral interventions. Within each category the team should determine 2-3 interventions options. Within and across all three categories the team must establish a hierarchy of intrusiveness. The team should select the least intrusive intervention feasible and avoid using intrusive interventions unless warranted. This hierarchy and listing of intervention options should be followed in a predetermined sequence which meets with the team's approval.

Data collection probes and monitoring should continue throughout the intervention phase. As the student meets success and maintenance is established, the team needs to fade the intervention and replace it with a lesser intrusive option from the hierarchy listing of behavioral strategies. If the strategy is ineffective the team may decide to move towards a more intrusive intervention and provide monitoring data of the ineffective less intrusive strategy as evidence to progress to more intrusive interventions.

Writing the Plan

All phases of this process should be written up and serve as documentation of the plan and it's effectiveness. The target behaviors identified in the interview process will serve as the behavioral stems of the behavior objectives. If the student is receiving special education service these objectives should appear on the I.E.P. and the document may serve as an addendum to the I.E.P. The hierarchy of interventions and the sequence in which they will be used should also be documented. Plans to fade towards lesser intrusive strategies must also be addressed. The team should document the method which will be used to monitor the plan's effectiveness. (Teams may decide to use the original data collection method as a probe throughout the intervention phase). Since the team is made up of various members who interact with the student across different circumstances and settings modification of the plan across settings can also be addressed thus providing the plan with a generalization component. (Suggested format examples and guidesheets will be provided during the presentation).

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Pauline J. Holloway, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma
Charloette Myles-Nixon, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Education,
University of Central Oklahoma, Edmond, Oklahoma

Project C.O.R.E.

A Behavior Model for Middle Schools - The "Wonder Years" in Crisis

Background, Theory and Philosophy

The history of the first middle school, or junior high school, indicates that it was not as concerned with the movement of introducing something new into American education as an expedient endeavor to ease several supposed deficiencies. Among the deficiencies, the desire to have students begin academic studies at an early point in their matriculation, precipitated the initiation of junior high schools. Another catalyst for this change was the need to develop an educational plan designed to meet the needs of this age. The emphasis was placed on the attempt to help the pupil explore attitudes. The development of a sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the group was an additional motivating factor.

Early studies of pupils of junior high age added credence to the argument for a separate school that would provide for the unique educational needs of the early adolescent. These studies reported a relatively high dropout rate beyond fifth grade. More than one-third of school children were retained at least once, and approximately six children, at any grade, was a repeater of that grade.

The young adolescent is a new kind of being which demands a new environment, new methods and new subject matter. It is important to note that the nature of the great upheaval at the dawn of the teenage years requires a distinct change in the substance and method of education. If the middle school has any real and valid reasons for existence, it must be based upon the ability to do something for children at this age group that cannot be done as well by other organizational patterns, or cannot be done at all.

Adolescence has been defined by characteristics of the developing organism, including age, biological development, cognitive and psychological functioning and by social criterion such as legal status and participation in adult social experiences. According to Williams (1987), the middle school is a transitional school concerned with the most appropriate program to cope with the personal and educational developmental needs of emerging adolescence, youths who were generally between ages 10 and 14. Williams identifies the following qualities as a general description of the characteristics of the age group:

1. During these years, youths are beginning to be aware of imminent body changes, and they seem to be characterized by restlessness and the need to be physically active.

2. There seems to be a desire on the part of youths of this age to begin to assert their need for independence... especially their independence from adults. In a sense, by breaking away from adults, they are asserting their own individuality.

3. While emerging adolescents are in the process of beginning to establish some degree of independence and individuality, they tend to begin to establish a stronger sense of a group identity with their age. Hence, they begin to display the well- known adolescent phenomenon of increased group conformity.

4. During the emerging adolescent years, youths begin to experience an increasing sexual awareness, so that girls begin to be more conscious of their characteristics and needs as females, boys begin to be more conscious of their characteristics and needs as males.

As youths begin to approach adolescence, they become more and more aware of the social phenomenon of adolescence. They have heard a good deal about "being a teenager" and about all folkways and mores of the teenage culture. As they approach these years, they begin to feel apprehensive about how they will fit into this teenage world. In this sense, then, the emerging adolescent years are characterized by a good deal of apprehensiveness about the impending adolescent years.

A rural state is defined as one of eighteen state with a population density of fifty persons or fewer per square mile: Alaska, Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Utah, Wyoming and Oklahoma.

Within any state, there are sparsely and densely populated cities and towns. The "Middle School Crisis" impacts a circle of constituents in each of these geographical areas:

1. The adolescent himself/herself as a student in the school
2. The institutional setting of the school itself serving the students
3. The teachers serving the students, the community which constitutes businesses
4. Churches and community centers
5. The home, with parents, guardians/significant others.

This existing organized system, the community/neighborhood in which these various constituents are aligned, allows for a pro-active approach to the "Middle School Crisis".

PROJECT C.O.R.E. as a pro-active solution begins first with a level/component, or understanding of the adolescent student, the nucleus of the solution. Readers Digest encyclopedic dictionary defines a nucleus, chemically, as being the center of a group or ring of atoms so related structurally that their fundamental arrangement remains intact through a series of chemical changes. Core, as a proactive solution has a similar structural design. A pro-active solution involves such an arrangement. An adolescent student is in a period of life during which change is greatest in physical, emotional and intellectual growth. There is an "asynchronicity", a non-harmony in growth of body parts, with rapid physical growth and along with fatigue affects attention span (Campbell, 1990). Emotions are volatile and fragile, e.g.. what any given person may think of as a minor event, may traumatize an adolescent's life for days that lead into weeks. Intellectually, a new functioning level in specific content areas presents a frustrating challenge.

Elster and Lamb (1986), define the five components at the adolescent period as:

1). Chronological Age: Using age to define adolescence. Age does not define or cause the characteristics to appear or behavior to occur. During these years several advances occur in cognitive, development, moral judgment and concerns about self.

2). Biological Development: Adolescence is generally defined as the period of time when students strive for the acquisition of full rights and responsibilities of adulthood. These people are sexually, but not socially or logically adults.

3). Cognitive and Psychological Development: Identity formation and the capacity for intimate relations are explored. Increases in factual knowledge improvement in understanding of verbal material appear. The development of sophisticated scientific deductive reasoning occurs as well as the appearance of executive control ability.

4). Legal Status: Between ages 14 and 21, persons acquire more and different legal rights and obligations than they had as minors.

5). Participation in Adult Life Events: Socially, individuals become adults when they have participated in certain life events and lead lives similar to those of most adults in society.

The boundaries of the adolescent population, usually considered as ages 11 through 15, are elastic, because adolescence or being a "teenager" is a "mind set" (Gross and Capuzzi, 1989). Within this expandable boundary is a population, ages 12 through 14, "early adolescence", that has become highly prioritized due to critical levels of concern in behavioral and academic performance. This age group consists of students in grades six through nine, the middle school years. Middle school students have suddenly been propelled into a stage in which they are unprepared for such rapid developmental change, biologically/physically, socially/emotionally, and academically, in a relative miniscule span of time. Panic attacks are considered not uncommon among early adolescents unprepared for the stress of a "teen" world. The lack of adaptive abilities and coping skills in a multiple of areas may categorically be identified as associated with "early school drop outs". This phenomenon not to be taken for granted, but is evidenced by the following data:

1. Persons under the age of 18 were accountable for 46.1% of all burglary arrests plus 23.3% of all burglaries cleared.

2. The largest number of arrests for offenses of larceny, 13.9% involved 13 and 14 year old offenders.

3. Persons under the age of 18 years were accountable for 48.2% of all larceny arrests and 31.2% of all larcenies cleared.

4. The age groups accounting for the highest percentage of persons arrested for

motor vehicle theft occurred in the 13 to 14 year old category, with 17.3% of the total motor vehicle arrests.

5. Fifty-nine percent of all arrests for motor vehicle theft were juvenile arrests. Of the total juvenile arrests for motor vehicle theft, 53.2% were for the age groups 13, 14, and 15.

6. Persons under 18 years of age accounted for 207 of the 385 arsons cleared by arrest.

To narrow this group, within the middle school, even further, we have an identified population of students with disabilities. We, the authors, contend however that during the "transition period" of middle school, it may be difficult, if not virtually impossible to separate out this special population from other students, other than statistically. Both populations, middle school as a whole and special students, are in a crisis situation based on their behaviors, the genesis of their birth environment, developmental patterns and academic problems. As a result of this group of circumstances, both sets of students will succumb to negative outcomes, e.g. student on student violence, "flunking out" and eventually dropping out of school in both metropolitan and rural areas. Student on student violence in special education has risen. Surprisingly, the increase in student on student violence has occurred in learning disabilities classes. Statistics show special education students are dropping out at alarming rates in the African American and Caucasian populations at the eighth grade level in metropolitan schools. In rural schools, the dropout rate is lower. However, the rate of male dropouts is on the rise. This procedure presents a picture, statistically, that is heart wrenching. An even more devastating picture is revealed when further separating out statistics on ethnicity and gender.

A second level/support system component of understanding in a pro-active solution lies within the institutional setting itself. During the last two decades, a vigil effort has been made to meet the needs of students in our middle schools. The National Middle School Association (NMSA) was established in 1973. Since the establishment of NMSA, middle schools have focused on a reformed movement to provide educational programs designed specifically for young adolescents (Lewis, 1992).

However, conditions in a major metropolitan group of middle schools reveal the following factors: 1) a number of students spent a considerable amount of travel time on busses to and from school, 2) a disproportionate number of minority students in any given school in conjunction with a predominantly White teacher/staff personnel. Fine (1986) reports the latter condition leads to poor communication and lack of understanding. This lack of understanding and poor communication may be the result of the ratio of majority teachers to minority students. There are fewer teachers who reflect the look of the students in special education. Only in the number of Caucasian students to Caucasian teachers are the numbers close. In all other ethnic categories, the majority teachers exceed the minority students. In one metropolitan middle school, in the '92-'93 school year, students and parents "walked-out" in protest to the apparent insensitivity and lack of understanding from the predominantly White teachers of the predominantly minority student body. This incident may have been related to the above mentioned factors. Some students openly stated that "these teachers don't care if I'm here or not". Fine (1986) also presents characteristics of dropout students in an urban high school, and describes how these characteristics affect both students and teachers, and leads to dropping out. Many of the circumstances with which some middle school students live, bring about a feeling of alienation in these students and thereby just "fading out" of the school system. Others are literally "pushed away and out" of the school by teachers who do not feel that these students are worth the time. In this investigation, the authors noted that the suspension rate was significantly high in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades for African American students in the 1992-93 school year. It may also be noted that many of these students carry the responsibilities of an adult. They are either one of the primary income members in a household, and leave school to work, or because they are a parent themselves. There is also the "traditional" problem of "supposed" role models (outside the school environment and in society) presenting unrealistic opportunities for the student to gain money and "status", giving the impression that school is a waste of time. The complexity of adolescence during middle school years has evolved into virtually an unmanageable dilemma. The crux of this dilemma may lie in the (seemingly) ineffective alternatives taken by the schools, the frustration experienced by parents and blame placed on the parent(s), and the labels applied to the students by the community and society.

The "training of teachers, in the middle school, is the third level/component of the solution. Teacher "training" should involve an indepth "knowledge-base", and the development of specific skills in order to work with the problems that are characteristic of middle school students. Not only are these "early adolescents" in our middle schools decidedly different characteristically, as a group, from other age groups, they are decidedly different, ethnically, from each other, which further complicates the picture. As a result, teachers also need instruction in how to learn from the ethnically diverse. The existing diverse population of special needs classrooms warrants the need for such instruction. Within the metropolitan middle schools, each ethnic group is represented in larger percentages in special education than in the general population except Asian and Hispanic students. "Ethnography", as described by Vandergrift and Greece (1992) is the understanding of others by their own terms, as opposed to the ineffective instructional method of studying the ethnically diverse. Schroeder (1993) reports in a study from the University of North Carolina, Chappel Hill Center for Early Adolescence, that "only one of five teachers in grades 5-9 has had the training to meet the developmental needs of young adolescents."

Teachers need to clearly understand adolescence. They need to understand that a sense of "wonder" prevails, and that along with the "wonder" comes an awareness of the constraints of rules from teachers, parents, the school, the community and society. Adolescents tend to experience a feeling of denial of freedoms and rights which they feel belong to them. This feeling of denied rights and freedoms may be associated with the rapid growth of ambivalence in the adolescent, and the constant need to gain control over those pieces of the world that directly affect them. In attempting to gain some control, adolescents literally "push" every thing in their everyday lives, and everyone in it , to extremes. A results of such "training"/ knowledge and understanding will likely yield the development of mutual respect between middle school students and teachers. Teachers cannot be treated as just consumers and distributors of the contents of curriculum guides, or as humanly formed textbooks, (Egan, 1992), or as living in a "hand-out-take-up" world of work sheets.

There are challenging tasks facing educators in this new decade of the 90's. Teachers must go beyond the initial classroom settings to be of maximum assistance to the middle school student experiencing vulnerability to the many influences in todays world. There must be a commitment to go beyond the traditional practices used in middle schools in the last two decades.

The "membrane" surrounding the nucleus of the solution, or the support system/component immediately surrounding the middle school student, is the family structure (the home/parents). The family is virtually an extension of the school and the teachers. The family, also an extension to the remaining components to be addressed, (the community-businesses, churches and community centers), will now be outlined as to its part of a pro-active solution.

Parents have long been besieged or inundated with two extremes in practices of raising children, the "ground rules" approach versus the "total autonomy" approach. Neither approach tends to be a workable one, especially in the 90's. Today, parents engaged in setting well-defined limits, combined with caring, involvement, and unconditional love are more effective. Good "two-way communication" is a key or a vehicle for parents in achieving a successful interaction for with their adolescents.

What we must advise parents to keep in mind is that during this time, the teenage years are positively correlated with many significant biological and psychological occurrences. In being a rational parent, to this age child, many facts/guidelines must be remembered. Davitz and Davitz, (1982) list several guidelines for "almost living happily with teenagers." The number one guideline is to "know yourself as a parent and be true to yourself".

When parents are asked what they want most for their children, many answered, for them to be happy and achieve. When conflict develops, don't spend a great deal of the time building a blame case against the child. As long as mutual blame remains, nothing productive can be achieved.

In general, parent involvement virtually does not exist, and possibly not deemed necessary, after the elementary school years. Middle schools do not have in place a plan or system for gaining and maintaining parent involvement. Parent involvement in the school is extremely important during this developmental period, because parents experience in the home what teachers and school personnel experience in the school: A student, now in adolescence, displaying behavior that demands a much different approach, requiring an understanding and expectations that seemingly have changed virtually "overnight". However, parents, as well as school personnel should learn to understand and accept this adolescent period of development. A good "rule of thumb" is for parents to be encouraging and supportive, and provide psychological space. This will help guide adolescents without interfering.

During early adolescence, there is a considerable effort spent on the part of the adolescent to distinguish oneself from ones' parents, and the beginning of a search for an identity. This search quickly develops to a primary and central concern, taking the form of exploration and experimentation. Commitments are unstable, interests, plans, goals and friends change frequently. Daydreaming about their future is characteristic of exploration, and socialization and appearance are important experimentations.

Belonging, tends to be an overriding need that underscores the ventures experienced in adolescence. Parents can be counseled with through support groups to reach understandings about teen behaviors and needs, and then be instructed how to implement this knowledge.

Through a support group, meeting on a consistent basis, parents receive information on effectively interacting with adolescents in the 90's. Specific objectives would center on : A means to help adolescents remain connected to the family, avoidance of adverse activities such as "gangs", getting students involved in activities that make a connection between the home, community and the school (from football to theater to volunteering), and (from group activities to individual activities). Parents can also be guided as to what to expect academically, and socially from their children during this period of change.

A crucial level/support system component to a pro-active solution to the "middle school crisis" is the community. A community is more than a group of people living in the same neighborhood. It can be that element the "ties" together, unites or gives a sense of belonging to people. This is of particular importance with the middle school student. A community can be that "supportive link" with other settings in which a middle school student will function. It is an integral part of the network that completes the support picture needed by middle school students.

Community services can be categorized as compensatory, preventive, or supportive (Berns, 1989). Compensatory, e.g. services that help "offest" income of families, preventive, eg. community/recreation centers to aid in the effective use of "free time", and supportive, eg. learning about the business world and employment. Identified resources in communities that can effectively be used in a pro-active solution are: businesses, community centers, and churches. Many of these community facilities are established as safe-places for students after school. Community participation with its area school is vitally important to the success of the community as a whole.

The community is a valued educational resource. There have been many cities that have participated in successful ventures between local schools and businesses, with students spending time on site at the various businesses. In turn, business personnel participating on school boards etc. Some schools have offered student credit for participation or volunteering in a business or community program. A variation of businesses, from newspapers to hospitals, are important in establishing a support system for middle school students. Parents, together with school personnel, are able to act as liaisons between students and local businesses. Community centers provide an opportunity to fill a much needed void during the adolescent years, "free time". Supervised organized events help prevent the occasions to participate in delinquent behavior and promote pro-social behavior and decrease antisocial behavior.

Pastoral care interventions in community-based setting is a provision in a pro-active solution. Ministers of the gospel have effective methods for helping adolescents in a crisis. They also have effective methodologies for working with families with adolescents that are experiencing an unending state of crisis. Ministers have identified "family stressors" in adolescent crises, originating internally and externally (Rowett, 1989). Rowett describes internal stressors as dependence vs. independence and distance vs. intimacy. External stressors of divorce and defining roles were also discussed.

Businesses, community centers, and churches can act as a unit of services forming an advocacy in each middle school area, equalizing opportunities for students, economically and ethnically. The results allow maximum opportunity for adolescents to transcend through an identifiable period of life, biologically, academically and socially.

The authors do not want to necessarily concentrate on causes of drop-out, but call attention to the problem, as to: occurrence, the representative population involved, and the demographics most highly affected. A proposed workable solution is presented in "Project Core" as the end product/goal of this research.

An Inclusive Behavior Model for Middle Schools

The program model described herein is a designed to provide a support system for Middle School students with behavior problems. Projects CORE, Cocoon Of Resilience through Education, inclusive in nature, is designed to work in conjunction with existing middle school programs, with parents, local businesses, churches, and community centers/agencies, to help students who are experiencing problems during a critical period in both their personal and academic lives. Interindependence is established goal of project CORE.

Project CORE utilizes the training system of Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA) in the teacher training component in an effort to bring about an understanding and improvement of human behavior through an analytical technological and conceptually systematic procedure. ABA involves the understanding of the principles to improve social significant behavior to a meaningfully degree and to demonstrate experimentally that the procedure employed is responsible for the improvement in behavior.

Projects CORE, in incorporating the structurally related services of the school, businesses, community centers, and churches in each school's neighborhood, works in support of the home environment. This will form a virtual cocoon of support during this vulnerable stage of development and growth. Resilience in the recovery from or ease in adjustment to change or misfortune. (Many students will experience confusion, self-doubt, or possible trauma).

Education is the key to facilitate training of a "core" of individuals. This core of parents, community leaders, businesses and educators, will seek to provide self-discipline, effective instruction, and to cultivate the cognitive potential of each student. CORE addresses an associative rather than a causal relationship to the problems of early adolescents.

The expected outcomes are:

1. Decrease in number of dropouts,
2. Increase in number of graduates
3. Decrease in number of altercations between students and between students and authority figures.
4. Decrease in number of short term and long term suspensions.
5. Decrease the percentage of absentees.

Adolescents' are affected by a myriad of influences, both direct and indirect, personal and professional. Project CORE as an organized delivery of services will address the adolescent, at the "core" of the system. This will be achieved by conducting a weekly seminar, involving trained personnel, and allowing students to discover solutions for problems they identify as important to them. Services will then simultaneously extend to the family, the home, with weekly meetings with parents, sharing and discussing parenting problems and seeking resolutions to those problems. A course of "training" (ABA) is ensued with teachers, counselors, and classroom aids to work effectively with adolescents academically and socially. The final dependent variable within the organization of project CORE is businesses and community centers. Purposes of project CORE will be outlined, and through community participation, school-business partnerships (work-study), volunteer hours by adolescents for school credit, will be established. Churches and community centers will set up "crisis hot lines" and "safe places" for adolescents. Individual counseling services will also be made an option for adolescents.

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James Murphy Peter and Mary Nixon
University of Victoria
Victoria, BC Canada V8W 3N4

Reaching to the Future with Modern Communication Technology: A New Frontier Established in British Columbia

Abstract:

British Columbia is one of the most beautiful regions of the world. The snowcapped mountains, the tall fir trees, the raging rivers and the glorious sunsets make the Province a photographer's paradise. The physical geography and climatic conditions have created substantial barriers to settlement communications and natural resource development. Once outside the large urban centres of Victoria, Vancouver and Nanaimo, one re-enters the world of the pioneer. Modern technology has undoubtedly made life easier for rural people, but man and nature confront each day.

With a land mass of nearly one million square kilometers, British Columbia is one of Canada's largest provinces. Though there appears to be ample space for settlement yet, nearly 60 per cent of the total population resides in the southern coastal area, in the valleys of the Interior and on Vancouver Island. The rugged terrain and severe extremes of temperature account for this population distribution.

To provide adequate educational services for a rural population scattered over a wide area, often isolated by mountains and rivers, and located in communities subject to harsh weather conditions has been a difficult task for provincial governments. Many rural people are conscious of their isolation and the important role which they play in the economic development of the Province. Consequently, community leaders and influential individuals from rural areas have lobbied provincial governments to provide isolated communities with adequate social services. These people recognize that they cannot expect comparable services to those available in urban centres, however, they are unwilling to become poor 'country cousins'.

Modern communications technology appears to possess the potential for overcoming the barriers to communication produced by the provinces physical geography and severe climate. The philosophical ideal of equal educational opportunity seems to be now possible for British Columbians, irrespective of their

place of residence. The provincial governments of British Columbia, irrespective of their political ideology, have been committed to distance education and the establishment of a sophisticated communication network for delivering a plethora of learning experiences to all regions of the Province. Recently public schools, community colleges and universities have been subject to severe fiscal constraints as a consequence of changes in government priorities, a depressed economy and a decline in public confidence in education. Even in this period of fiscal contraction, distance education initiatives have received funding.

Since the early eighties, there has been increased collaboration among the post-secondary institutions and an increase in non-traditional methods of delivering post-secondary education. Organization structures, institutional relationships, institutional practices and administrative procedures which have existed for decades are beginning slowly to change. Conflict, misunderstanding and anxiety often arise when the 'open' non-traditional distance education system interfaces with the 'closed' traditional post-secondary bureaucracy. One outcome of this interaction is that post-secondary institutions appear to be more 'open' in terms of admission requirements, transfer of course credits and planning programs. At present we possess limited knowledge of this evolving process and the new organizational structures which are emerging.

The University of Victoria initiated, on July 3, 1991 a program designed to meet the professional continuing needs of rural educators in the isolated communities of northern British Columbia, the Yukon and the Northwest Territories. The delivery system of the new program was based upon the *Open University* concept developed in Britain. Of course, the concept has been modified to accommodate the unique characteristics of northern Canada and both traditional and distance education instructional practices have been utilized. This 'blended' system has been fairly successful.

All students were requires as part of their studies to complete exploratory enquiries of importance to rural school districts. A special support system known as a Professional Learning Circle (PLC) evolved to assist the students to complete this challenging task. This PLC seemed to overcome professional and social isolation by nurturing collegiality among the cohort. When problems emerged, the individual knew that he/she had access to a colleague who would provide some advice and encouragement. The important contribution of the comradeship and *esprit de corps* established during Summer Studies cannot be over estimated.

The most recent phase of the program has utilized teleconferencing extensively -- international teleseminars, interprovincial teleseminars, small group teleconferencing sessions, large group teleconferencing sessions and personal telephone tutorials have all been part of the learning/teaching strategies. In addition, special texts were created for this phase of the program so that students could study groups in action, discuss case studies with mentors, and complete position papers on contemporary issues in educational administration and school

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management. The community and professional mentors provided students with a different perspective of leadership and offered them an opportunity to discuss educational issues with influential people in their communities.

We believe a new frontier has been established for delivering professional development experiences. Additional experimentation is now required to extend our knowledge of how modern communication technology can be employed creatively to offer educators a diversity of learning experiences. Many educators today, especially those in positions of administration and management, are confronted by difficult issues which require them to participate in professional continuing education. Government initiatives to facilitate child-centred learning have aggravated this situation by placing educators in a dynamically different school environment for which many of them have not received adequate initial preparation. Consequently, new approaches for delivering professional development, particularly to rural areas, must be assigned a high priority.

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Mary Susan E. Fishbaugh, Ed.D.
Montana State University-Billings

A LIVING ROOM FOR IEPs

In the fall, James enrolled in his neighborhood elementary school. James was seven years old and beginning the first grade. He had recently moved to Montana from Florida to live with his maternal grandmother. James' parents were divorced and his mother's current companion physically abused James on a regular basis. The companion and mother agreed that James deserved the abusive treatment because of his incorrigible behavior. No longer able to tolerate the disruptive child, mother had packed him off to the far reaches of a remote western state and had given custody of her small son to her mother.

The school welcomed James. It was a rather large old building on the south side of a big city, by Montana standards. Being in a poor, multiethnic neighborhood, the school enrolled a diverse student body. Children of many races, from varied family backgrounds, with a wide range of academic acuity came together at 8:25 AM, went to their heterogeneously grouped classes, ate lunch together, played and fought together on the playground, and dispersed to their very different home environments at 3:10 PM. The school embraced diversity. Then came James.

James hit the first grade class room running. Within the first hour, his teacher was in tears. James had jumped on one of the desks, made obscene gestures matched with equally inappropriate language, bolted from the room, charged through all three floors of the school, and had been returned, kicking and screaming by Grandma after running home. The teacher requested records, a special education evaluation, and an immediate staffing.

When the IEP committee met in the principal's office one week later, the school psychologist explained information from James' school in Florida and presented results of her tests. The teacher politely informed James' grandmother why James could not be expected to remain in her classroom. The special education teacher presented possible goals and objectives for James and asked Grandma to agree with them. The principal told Grandma that the school had contacted a local psychiatric clinic and that James was on a waiting list for admittance. She asked Grandma to sign on the dotted line.

In the nearly twenty years since the passage of P.L. 94-142, with its requirement for an Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) for each child with a disability, the IEP process has become routinized. The majority of IEP meeting participants are school personnel, who categorize the student according to test scores and one or more legal disability categories, propose computerized goals and objectives, suggest placement based upon current school programs, and speak down to other meeting participants in educational jargon. Parents are often uncomfortable in school, a setting where they may have experienced failure or alienation. They agree to the school's proposals from a position of subordinance, intimidation, and frustration. The 1990 revision of special education law, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) maintained focus on individual educational planning, but the routinized process in most special educational programs has remained unchanged. This paper tells the story of one school's successful efforts to abide by the spirit of IDEA's IEP mandate.

In the fall of the 1992/93 school year, an elementary school in one of Montana's larger towns, was chosen as the pilot inclusion site for the school district. An older building in the multiethnic, low socioeconomic, south side. the school was not fully accessible. Consequently, no students with severe physical disabilities were involved in the inclusion. Before being targeted as the inclusion site, the school had two "extended resource rooms" that were self contained special education placements, two resource classrooms, and a preschool program for young children with disabilities. During the pilot inclusion year, these special places were disbanded. The special education teachers and paraeducators were reassigned into general education classrooms and children were taught with other children, regardless of ability, disability, or legal special education category.

For inclusive educational practice to be successful, students with disabilities must be supported. This support comes in various forms, but the underlying philosophy of supported education is that everyone belongs (Forest & Lusthaus, 1990). One way to promote a sense of community and belonging in an inclusive educational setting is through designing and maintaining natural supports (Forest & Pearpoint, 1992). All of us need the support of family and friends. Children who have been segregated in specialized settings may lack peer support. The development of friendships must be consciously planned and continuously fostered. Building a "Circle of Friends" can begin with an exercise through which the individual child is perceived as the center of a series of four concentric circles (Falvey, Forest, Pearpoint, & Rosenberg, (1994). The individual's circles are filled with the people who are nearest to the child, good friends, acquaintances, and finally paid service providers. Although the inclusion school teachers did not consciously design a Circle of Friends for their included students with disabilities, they did realize the children's needs for peer and family support. They did work to encourage friendships and to facilitate parental participation in the students' educational programs.

Inclusive education becomes more realistic if the focus of educational decision making is the individual, rather than the individual's disability category. The MAPS process is one way to help adjust focus (Falvey, Forest, Pearpoint, & Rosenberg, 1994; Forest & Lusthaus, 1990; Forest & Pearpoint, 1992; Vandercook, York, & Forest, 1989) and a means of including peers and parents in special educational planning. The McGill Action Planning System asks questions of the child and other significant people in their circle of friends in order to plan the most supportive educational program possible. The seven essential questions include: (1) What is the story? (2) What is your dream? (3) What is your nightmare? (4) Who are you? (5) What are your unique gifts? (6) What are your needs? (7) What is the plan of action to avoid the nightmare and to make the dream come true?

As the pilot site became more invested in inclusive practice and more intense about implementation of inclusion, the faculty became sensitive to issues of community, of belonging, and of individual student needs with regard to educational support. Case Study Team (CST) and Individual Education Plan (IEP) committees began to investigate better ways to develop inclusive programs for individual children. They began to use the MAPS process with children and the people in their support circles. At first the process resembled a traditional IEP meeting with its formality, dominance by school personnel, and lack of involvement by family and friends. Then, the dean of a local university's college of education presented an inservice to the school faculty and introduced them to the concept of a "living room IEP".

The school had the luxury of a spare room. On the first floor was a seldom used lounge. It had been the smokers' haven, but when the Billings school board dictated a smoke free environment for all schools, the smokers' lounge emptied. The school staff contacted local businesses for materials, solicited volunteer labor of school faculty and friends, and received a $500.00 donation from the university. The nicotine stained smokers' lounge became a blue and cream "living room" replete with ceiling fans, a hospitality area, plush rugs, and comfortable furniture including a wicker rocker. Instead of meeting in the principal's office or a teacher's classroom, parents could meet with school personnel in a friendly environment. The IEP Living Room more than transformed a setting; it empowered a process.

The pilot school's efforts toward inclusive educational practice continue. Each year, inclusion looks a little bit different as personnel retire or transfer, as individual student needs vary with student population changes, and as the school adjusts to a new building administration. Welcoming parents into the IEP living room and encouraging them toward greater participation in their children's education through the MAPS process have strengthened inclusion by strengthening the students' circles of friends. Inclusive educational practice in this elementary school means supported education for all students.

There was not a bed for James on the children's psychiatric unit and it was just as well... The first grade paraeducator's time was reassigned in order for him to spend more time in James' classroom. Two sophomore practicum students from the local state university were placed in the first grade class, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon. James' teacher had agreed to mentor a student teacher fall semester, so she had a team teacher with her continually. The primary special education teacher divided her time among the first grades, but was always on call if James went into crisis. The adults working with James taught his first grade peers to ignore inappropriate outbursts, to reinforce James' positive school efforts, and to be friends to James during class, at lunch, and on the playground. The only times when James might be separated from his classmates were those when he became aggressive toward other children; these times became less frequent and shorter in duration as the semester progressed.

In the middle of October, the teacher requested another IEP meeting. James' grandmother was ushered into the newly remodeled living room and asked what her dreams were for James. His paternal grandfather, who also lived in the area and was among James' familial support circle, had been invited to the meeting.

He told everyone that his nightmare for his troubled grandson was continual upheaval and change. James had experienced so many changes in his young life already that taking him from his grandmother and placing him in a hospital setting for even a short crisis intervention might add to his problems rather than helping him through them. The committee agreed. Everyone began to see James as a person with dreams, nightmares, gifts ,and needs that could be met with the appropriate plan, rather than an ED student who should be placed in a residential setting.

In December, James was named First Grade Student-of-the-Month by his classmates.

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Cynthia Smith
Robert L. Morgan
Chadron State College
Chadron, NE

AWARENESS OF DEAF SIGN LANGUAGE AND GANG SIGNS

"Deaf Girl Shot for Signing" the headline may read. This is not an unreasonable consideration. Murders similar to this have been documented both in California and Florida, and many other incidents involving injury may go unreported (Nebraska Commission for the Hearing Impaired, 1994). These innocent people who use American Sign Language (ASL) or another form of sign language can be and are being victimized by gang violence.

ASL, a common method of signing, is familiar to learners with a variety of disabilities, particularly those in the deaf community. Such persons may acquire language by using ASL and use it as their primary means of communication. Others may utilize ASL or similar systems to enhance language development or expression (Kriegsmann, Gallaher, & Meyers, 1982). Individuals who use ASL or another sign system may be unwittingly victimized by gangs for no apparent reason (Johnson, 1993).

This happens as gang members in clans with familiar sounding names, such as Crips, Bloods, invent their own hand shapes and signs. According to Street Beat (Denver Police Department, 1993), this language is a boding factor. For instance, the sign for Vice Lords involves extending the thumb, index, and middle fingers while flexing the third and little fingers into the palm (Gangs LA Style, 1991) - which is the same sign for "3" in ASL. This sign becomes an identifying and unifying symbol among gang members (Ford, L., & Albert, B., 1990). Gangs create and utilize words and phrases that are unique to its local subculture (Shot for sign language? 1994). Gang language involves a mixture of hand shapes and signs and the primary spoken language of the members.

Most gang signs parallel ASL signs (please refer to the attached chart for examples). This is a critical consideration when teaching learners with disabilities sign language. When in the community or on the school grounds, they may be preyed upon by gang members. Gang sign language has been seen in and around schools (Ford, L., & Albert, B., 1990). An additional problem for persons with hearing impairments is the use of "CUZ" for "because" while communicating on the Telephone Device Decoder (I.e., TDD/TTY). Gang members typically complete their sentences by using "Blood" or "Cuz."

People in rural areas often feel insulated from many of these problems. Yet, sign language is used by people in the hearing and deaf communities throughout the United States. These signs, essential for conversation, can be dangerous in some communities, including those in rural areas. Urban gangs are recruiting new gang members in rural communities, often without the residents' awareness. These communities do not comprehend how gang problems can arise in their own communities. Sharp (1994) noted active gang members in rural communities have been seen at some community locations where the members can meet without any transportation difficulty.

Professionals in rural areas should inform their students on how to avoid conflict with gang members. Johnson (1993) provided several guidelines. The first is to find out and then avoid gang colors, symbols, and style of clothing. For instance, the Disciples and Crips will wear blue and black. Bloods prefer red. Sports symbols also provide an indication of gang affiliation. Crips wear Los Angeles Dodgers and British Knights clothing. The Vice Lords wear clothing with New Orleans Saints, University of Colorado, Pittsburgh Pirates, and L.A. Kings symbols. Finally, gang members wear clothes off one shoulder or another. Disciples wear clothes off the right shoulder while the Bloods wear theirs to the left. Hispanic gangs typically wear baggy pants and tank tops or T-shirts.

The second is to be aware of how to handle a dangerous situation in gang territory. For example, an individual may accidentally give a hand signal that offends a gang member while innocently signing. The individual should politely say he or she was just communicating with another or carry some means of stating that sign language is the sole means of communication. Johnson (1993) reported that gang members may not lash out if given deference and respectful politeness.

Finally, one should learn to recognize and avoid any interactions with gang members. An individual's behavior or attitude may be viewed as disrespectful if he or she refuses to complete a request by a gang member in authority. Gang members may also verbally abuse an innocent person for no reason (Denver Police Department, 1993).

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Example American Sign Language Terms	Example American Sign Language Formations*	Gang Sign	Gang Sign Formations
"Y," yellow, me too	yellow - "Y" hand shakes slightly, pivoted at the wrist	"Primo" sign, Neighborhood Bloods	thumb and little finger are extended, middle three fingers are flexed into the palm
incomplete sign for cigarette, mock,	cigarette - the index and little fingers of the right hand, palm facing down, are placed upon the left index finger, so that the right index finger rests on the knuckle of the left index finger and the right little finger rests on the tip of the left index finger	Brims - a Bloods group	the index and little fingers of the hand are extended, the middle three fingers are flexed into the palm
I love you, incomplete sign for airplane, fly, airport	I love you - "I," "L," and "Y" are combined (thumb, index, and little finger are extended; middle and third fingers are flexed into the palm); palm is directed forward	Blackstone or Brim Bloods	thumb, index, and little finger are extended; middle and third fingers are flexed into the palm; palm is facing left (Blackstone); index and little fingers are pointed down (Brim Bloods)

*From AMERICA SIGN LANGUAGE DICTIONARY
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"L," shoot	shoot - the right "L" hand is pointed forward, palm facing left; the right thumb is then moved down, as in the movement of the pistol's hammer	Denver Lane Bloods	the right "L" hand is pointed forward, palm facing left; the right thumb is extended
"P" or "K," purple, principal, and principle	principal - the down turned, right "P hand is swung from right to left over the back of the prone left hand	Avalon Gangster Crips	an inverted ASL "K," or ASL "P"
"2" or "V," dance, other incomplete signs which include "V"	dance - the down turned index and middle fingers of the right "V" hand swing rhythmically back and forth over the upturned left palm	Playboy Gangster Crips	ASL "2" or "V"
through	through - the open right hand is pushed between either the middle and index or the middle and third fingers of the open left hand	Venice Gangster Bloods, Van Ness Gangster Bloods	the thumb is flexed into the palm, the remaining fingers are extended, middle and third fingers held apart
"V" or "2," arithmetic	arithmetic - the "V" hands, palms facing the body, alternately cross and separate, several times	Villains Bloods	ASL "V" or "2"

"F" and "9," member, family, find, appoint, and count	family - the thumb and index fingers of both "F" hands are in contact, palms facing; the hands swing open and around, coming together again at their little finger edges, palms now facing the body	Pirus Bloods	an inverted ASL "F" or "9"
"3," third, awkward, devil	awkward - the "3" hands, palms down, move alternately up and down before the body	Vice Lords	ASL "3"
earth, globe, beef, small	small - the extended right thumb and index finger are held slightly spread; they are then moved slowly toward each other until they almost touch	Crips	the extended right thumb and index finger are held slightly spread; the remaining fingers are flexed into the palm
balance, salt, name, happen	name - the right "H" hand, palm facing left, is brought down on the left "H" hand, palm facing right	Mafia Crips	the right "H" hand, palm facing down is brought parallel to the left "H" hand, palm facing down

another, other, ten, girl, tomorrow	another - the right "A" hand, thumb up is pivoted from the wrist and swung over to the right, so that the thumb now points to the right	Bishop	ASL "A" with thumb pointing up
"L," library, license	library - the right "L" hand, palm out, describes a small clockwise circle	Varrio La Loma	the right hand forms an "L" with the back of the hand facing the signer; the right hand forms an "L" with the palm facing the signer
"L," library, license	license - the "L" hands, palms out, touch at the thumb tips several times	Mafia Crips	the "L" hands, palms in, touch at the thumb tips
class, club, gang, company	gang - both "C" hands, palms facing, are held a few inches apart at chest height; they are swung around in unison so that the palms now face the body	Compton Crips	both hands form a "C" fingers spread apart, similar to a claw, with the palms facing each other
to	to - the extended right index finger moves forward slowly and comes to rest on the tip of the extended, upturned left index finger	Tortilla Flats	the extended right index finger is placed perpendicular on the extended and upturned left index finger

WOODRUM, DIANE: HENDERSON, JOAN: AND UNGER, BARRY
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY
MORGANTOWN, WV
26506-6122

Students With Attention Deficit Disorders

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
and
Section 504

Students with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) are often described as those students who exhibit poor attention skills, while other students with Attention Deficit Disorder with Hyperactivity (ADHD) can be characterized as exhibiting impulsivity or hyperactivity in addition to inattention. For the purposes of this paper, the term ADD will be used to incorporate both disorders.

"Until recently, most books and publications about ADD were written for health care professionals and parents; educators knew little about attention deficit disorders" (Lerner, 1995). However, awareness of this disorder as a disabling condition has grown and the need for appropriate intervention has placed strong demands on school systems. These demands become acute in most rural systems where there is a lack of training opportunities. It is critical that inservice training for rural educators be available, particularly in areas where populations are sparse and effective communication is poor.

Mandated by law, state and local education associations are responsible and obligated to make "free and appropriate public education" (FAPE) available to all eligible students with disabilities. Estimates suggest that ADD affects 10% to 20% of the school-aged populations (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 1992). Inclusive education has forced increasing reliance by general educators to assume responsibility for children with ADD. As a result, issues regarding definition, eligibility, and in particular, placement of children with ADD under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and Section 504, begin to surface in the general education milieu.

Definition: IDEA defines eligibility for those students who have certain types of disabilities, needing specially designed instruction, as those who can benefit from an educational setting in which education is adversely affected. In West Virginia (WV), ADD falls under the categorical classification of Other Health Impaired. Policy 2419: Regulations for the Education of Exceptional Children (WV Department of Education, 1992) defines the population of students with other health impairments as having disabilities of limited strength, vitality, or alertness due to chronic or acute health problems.

As a result of ADD being considered an other health impairment in policy 2419, the family physician or pediatrician is required to play a major role in the assessment process for children with ADD. The family physician or pediatrician also initiates the comprehensive treatment program with counseling and stimulant medication, and coordinates the use of special education, mental health and other resources as needed (Hughes, Goldman, & Snyder, 1983). The physician's role in the assessment process is to explain and discuss the diagnostic criteria and the medication that physicians use in diagnosing and treating ADD. The diagnostic criteria used by physicians for ADD is found in the DSM-IV (American Psychological Association, 1994). Once a diagnosis has been made, the various medications often used to treat ADD (e.g., methylphenidate, dextroamphetamine, and ritalin) and their impact on the child in various setting need to be explained by the physician. (Barkley, Dupaul, & McMurray, 1991; Barkley, Fischer, Newby, & Breen, 1988; Carlson & Bunner, 1993; Hinshaw, 1991; Jacobvitz, Stoufe, Stewart, & Leffert, 1990; Stevenson & Wolraich, 1989; Whalen & Henker, 1991).

Section 504, an anti-discrimination act that protects the rights of students from being discriminated against on the basis of their disability, serves those students having any physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities including learning.

All individuals who are disabled under IDEA are also protected by Section 504. However, all individuals identified as Section 504 may not be disabled under IDEA. The identification process for students under section 504 are comparable to the identification requirements for students under IDEA, but are not the same. Consequently, the two programs are referred to as separate mandates, where Section 504 is a general education function and IDEA is a special education function.

The general education system is responsible for assuring the implementation of Section 504, and, in some school districts, the referral process is under the coordination of a general education administrator. Any financial decisions are the responsibility of the general program and must come from general education budget. However, Section 504 is not a funded law, and the responsibility of providing a "free and appropriate public education" falls on regular education.

Other school districts place the responsibility for the implementation of Section 504 under special education administration. This is primarily justified by the fact that the School Based Assistance Team (SBAT), a team within a school that provides assistance to students within the regular classroom, is still in policy 2419. The monitoring of those students identified as being eligible under Section 504 are often the responsibility of the SBAT. Consequently, special education administrators become responsible for the coordination of the process.

Eligibility: Students in WV referred for man evaluation for ADD under IDEA are provided a comprehensive psychological evaluation in addition to a medical diagnosis. Students meeting the criteria for eligibility can receive special education and related services under IDEA and at the same time, can be protected under Section 504.

Students who are not eligible under IDEA, but can be deemed handicapped are protected by Section 504 regulations. The evaluation requirements for 504 protection does not include a comprehensive evaluation, but, can include one if decided upon by the SBAT.

Placement: Educational services for students with ADD are provided by regular and special education programs in West Virginia schools. If the student is identified as having certain types of specified disabilities, such as a learning disability or a behavior disorder, the student can receive services under IDEA. The differentiating factor for determining placement for students with ADD, like students with other conditions and disabilities, is that their educational performance is adversely affected to the extent that they need specially designed instruction to meet their unique needs they are then eligible for, and receive special education services.

For a student eligible under Section 504, placement is the regular education classroom. However, special accommodations or related services in the regular setting are made in order for the students to participate in the school program. It is the responsibility of the school district to develop and implement a plan for the delivery of all needed services.

Section 504 Plans: A section 504 Plan requires that the identified problem(s) be accommodated and that specific modifications developed are documented as an individualized program for each student. Examples of modifications that can be made to the regular class are altered work space, work, and/or time, physical or mechanical aids, supplemental materials, altered directions (i.e. tape recorded), attention to learning style, behavior management strategies, and many more that would appropriately meet the unique needs of the individual student.

Specifically, placement of a students with ADD in the regular setting requires training in behavior management, social skills knowledge, and teaching academic skills. The regular educator is quite often competent in the teaching of academic skills but their repertoire of behavior management strategies and social skills training is lacking. Consequently, the teaching of academic skills become secondary when the controlling behaviors required for learning is inadequate.

There are several applications of behavioral theory that are important in managing the behavior of children with ADD. Many special educators have the expertise to apply behavioral strategies and can assist the regular educator with implementation. The collaboration of both professionals is necessary for success.

When modifications and interventions to the regular program are implemented to accommodate the child in normal functioning, monitoring the effectiveness of the interventions help assure student achievement. The regular educator is not always equipped to provide those interventions but are often required to do so. Assistance teams within the school can assist that teacher and provide them with information needed for appropriate execution of various management strategies. Consequently, the burden of responsibility continues to be on the regular educator but some level of support is provided.

In view of inclusive education, the sharing of skills by regular and special educators is done through the implementation of instructional delivery models, which require consultation and collaboration among school personnel. The regular education placement for the child with ADD with appropriate interventions and modifications that have been agreed upon by parents and school personnel, is presently the most accepted placement.

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Dr. Melanie Dreisbach
Shannon Napier
Sarah Russell
Pam Franklin
Vernell Bizardi
Brenda Yellowhair
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff Arizona
Kayenta Unified School District
Kayenta Arizona

A DESCRIPTION OF AN INCLUSION MODEL THAT IS WORKING IN A RURAL AREA

Inclusion as a philosophy of education and as a model of service delivery to students with special needs has been gaining momentum throughout the past decade. Despite continuing controversy and debate, the pendulum is swinging away from pull-out and self-contained programs toward inclusion of students with disabilities in regular education classrooms. While educators continue to debate the pros and cons of inclusion, lessons can be learned from inclusive programs already in practice. As participants in a school-based special education teacher training program in a district with full inclusion, we offer a description of an inclusion model that is working.

Description of the District

The Kayenta Unified School District (KUSD) is located on the Navajo Reservation in the northeastern section of Arizona. The setting is rural and remote, with colorful sand dunes, valleys, mesas, and plateaus more in evidence than people. Kayenta lies almost equidistant from the nearest urban centers of Flagstaff, Arizona and Farmington, New Mexico, each about 150 miles away.

Approximately 2800 students from an area of 3,000 square miles are enrolled in the four schools which serve the district, all located in the town of Kayenta. There is a primary (preschool-2nd grade), intermediate (3rd-5th), middle (6th-8th) and high (9th-12th) school. District buses travel over 2,000 miles per day transporting students to and from school. Approximately eighty percent of the students ride the bus to school each day. Given the geographic size of the district, the rural style of Navajo life with long distances between homesteads, and the paucity of paved roads rendering access difficult during winter snow and spring mud, a student's bus ride may consume up to three hours per day. Ninety five to ninety seven percent of the students are Navajo, with eighty eight percent specifying Navajo as their home language. Two hundred and five of the 2800 students are identified with disabilities, representing 6-9% of each school's student population.

Breakdown by disability is consistent with expected rates of prevalence. Learning disabilities account for approximately 63% of students identified with special needs. Mental retardation accounts for about 8% and multiple disabilities for 7%. Approximately 2% fall into each of the categories of emotional disability, hearing impairment, and visual impairment. Additionally, one or two students are identified with autism, orthopedic, or other health impairment.

District Rationale for Inclusion

Failure of the district special education resource programs to improve academic achievement led KUSD in 1991 to abandon the pull-out program in favor of an inclusion model. According to the special education director at the time inclusion began in the system, "of over one hundred students who had been enrolled in our special education resource programs for five years or longer, not one student demonstrated expected academic growth" (Bissmeyer, 1991).

Definition of Inclusion

The district adopted a philosophy of inclusion whereby special education students are educated within the regular classroom. Classroom teachers assume responsibility for the education of all students, with the support of those trained in special education.

Inclusion is defined by the district in its philosophy statement:

> The concept of inclusion means all children can learn and should be given the opportunity to learn in the same environment, regardless of their special or individual needs. The self-esteem and learning of all students is best enhanced by normalizing their educational experiences under one unified system. This is best accomplished in the regular classrooms with the support of specialist, training, and time to implement a differentiated curriculum.
>
> The inclusion partnership empowers classroom teachers and specialist(s) to better meet the needs for the learning of all children in their classes. The concept and philosophy of inclusion will be continually disseminated to administrators, teachers, support staff, parent and community members. Administrators, teachers, and support staff will be provided necessary skills and resources to implement inclusion district-wide K-12 (Bissmeyer, 1991).

The Inclusion Model-Support Facilitators

Special educators at KUSD have the title of support facilitator, for their primary responsibility is to assist regular classroom teachers and families regarding provision of services to students with special needs. A team of three support facilitators is assigned to each of the primary, intermediate, and middle schools. Four support facilitators serve the high school.

Support facilitators meet on a regular basis with the classroom teachers whom they are assigned to assist. They help classroom teachers develop appropriate Individualized Education Program (IEP) goals and objectives and make sure that these goals and objectives are being addressed. Should the classroom teacher need help modifying the regular curriculum, the support facilitator is called upon to offer ideas, information, and resource materials. The support facilitator also spends time in the classroom working with both labeled and nonlabeled students in individual and small-group arrangements or as a team teacher. Other important responsibilities include assessing students, writing semester progress reports, attending multidisciplinary team meetings, coordinating related services, meeting with parents, and completing required special education paperwork.

Support extends to the family as well. In an area where families may be without a telephone and means of transportation and where public transportation is for the most part nonexistent, the school must make the effort to contact the family. Each school has a home liaison, bilingual in Navajo and English, who travels the extended network of dirt roads crisscrossing the reservation in an effort to make home visits. The support facilitator may accompany the liaison to help explain a referral for special education, documents requiring a parent signature, the IEP process, parent rights and responsibilities, procedural safeguards, or other related matters.

Paraprofessionals

Students who because of their disabilities need additional assistance for successful integration into the regular classroom may be assigned paraprofessionals who function as individual aides. Responsibilities depend upon the individual needs of the students. They range from toilet training and specialized feeding at the primary school to assisting with note taking in high school academic classes or providing training in vocational or independent living skills. Paraprofessionals are supervised by the support facilitators with additional training provided by related service providers.

Related Service Providers

KUSD is able to provide certain related services with district specialists. Full-time services are provided by a teacher of the visually impaired, a teacher of the hearing impaired, a physical therapist, and five speech therapists. Additional related services are contracted on a part-time basis and include an audiologist, an occupational therapist, and a teacher of orientation and mobility. Due to its remote setting, the district relies upon off-reservation consortium and state school specialists offering contract services. These services are coordinated by the support facilitators in each of the four district schools.

Site-Based Variations

Each school utilizes site-based management with some variation in how inclusion is implemented. Differences in age groups served, student characteristics, curriculum offerings, educational approaches of administrators and instructional staff dictate alterations in program implementation. At the primary school, emphasis is placed upon developing acceptance of individual differences. The support facilitators and the counselor work with individual classrooms to promote social acceptance of students with classroom needs. A "circle of friends" involving all members of the classroom is encouraged. Students receive training in social skills geared toward developing appropriate classroom and school behaviors among all students. Cooperative learning with nonlabeled students helping labeled students is built into the daily classroom routine.

When it comes to developing relationships and making friends, an additional factor plays a role in rural communities such as those in the KUSD. With long bus rides experienced daily by many students, the interactions between students on buses form the basis of friendships. By riding the bus together and working side by side in the same classrooms, students with and without disabilities are able to get to know each other and to build upon common experiences. This is an important, although perhaps overlooked, factor in inclusion.

The "Circle of Friends" empathy training program is also utilized at the intermediate school to promote acceptance in special situations. That and the McGill Action Plan for Students (MAPS) are considered excellent tools at KUSD for integrating students with more severe handicapping conditions into the regular classroom community. Through such educational approaches as cooperative learning, peer-tutoring, and self-pacing of instruction, individual needs of all students in the inclusive setting are addressed.

By the time students reach middle school, the focus shifts to individual learning and blending into the regular education program to the extent possible. Students at this age group appear to be extremely sensitive to any singling out for special help. Support facilitators work hard to provide services in a way which doesn't draw attention to the students with identified disabilities. Another difference at the middle school level is the need for support facilitators to counsel and to discipline students. There is also the need to interface with a variety of community agencies including social services, judicial courts, police department, and Indian Health Service.

Only in high school are students with more involved special needs grouped for part of the day for vocational and independent living skill training. Two of the support facilitators at the high school level concentrate on community based instruction and vocational development with those students in need of more specialized services. The other two support facilitators concentrate on assisting students with learning disabilities in the general education program. Public relations is a major part of the job. Subject area teachers often require a lot of encouragement to be willing to work with special needs students in their classes.

Documentation of the IEP Progress

Each year the district documents the number of IEP objectives written and met. It is instructive to compare the three years prior to implementation of the inclusion model with the first three years following implementation.

One significant change is that the number of objectives written increased dramatically during the period of full inclusion. Preceding inclusion, a total average of 787 objectives representing approximately 4.5 objectives per identified student were written. Following implementation of inclusion, the total average of objectives written rose to 1815, representing approximately 9.4 objectives per student. This change represents more than a doubling of objectives written per student.

Possible reasons for the increase are worth considering. Changing state guidelines for writing IEPs may account for the difference. Support facilitators are now required to write transitional objectives as well as more objectives per goal at KUSD (three instead of two). For students with more severe disabilities, objectives across a broader range of functional/independent living skills are being developed. Perhaps these changes relate at least in part to implementation of full inclusion. With classroom teachers addressing academic/cognitive goals and objectives through the regular curriculum, perhaps more emphasis is placed on programming in the affective and functional skill domains.

The number of objectives met per student did not change significantly. An average of 3.1 objectives per student were met before inclusion as compared to 3.2 objectives after inclusion. These figures represent a drop in the overall percentage of written objectives met from 69% to 34%. The constant rate of objectives completion pre- and post-inclusion paired with the doubling of objectives written accounts for this change. What could appear to be lowered achievement is actually consistent performance.

Survey of District Staff

As part of the practicum experience in the Rural Special Education Project, NAU students work in KUSD classrooms from 4-6 hours daily. This provides direct experience with inclusive practices as well as the opportunity to learn from staff members their views on inclusion. We also interviewed and/or obtained written responses to surveys regarding inclusion at KUSD from district administrators, support facilitators, and classroom teachers. Following is a summary of responses from staff which address how inclusion is viewed to be working at KUSD.

The overwhelming response from administrators and support facilitators is favorable of full inclusion. Respondents emphasize the noticeable increasing self-esteem and social acceptance. Primary and intermediate school staff comment on the joy of encountering students clamoring to have a turn to help guide a student in a wheelchair or to catch a ride in the hall. They also acknowledge the growing acceptance and confidence demonstrated by some classroom teachers who initially balked at including a special needs student in their classroom only to become pleased and enthusiastic once they gave it a try.

Respondents at the middle and high school also note the increase in self esteem of many students with special needs and their social-emotional growth. They report dramatic improvement in the behaviors of these students who now seem to conform to comportment standards displayed by their peers. In some cases, gains in self-esteem and adaptive behaviors are reportedly linked to students switching to milder disability categories (mild mental retardation to learning disabilities) or out of special education altogether.

A common response concerns the classroom environment created by the teacher. In classrooms where teachers model acceptance and respect for all students and attempt to foster friendships through peer tutoring, cooperative learning and group activities, inclusion is reported to meet with greater success.

Respondents make clear, however, that not all students with disabilities are accepted. Those with more noticeable disabilities and those with emotional and behavioral problems may be excluded more by their classmates despite inclusionary practices. At the middle and high school levels, classroom teachers also point out the difficulty of meeting the range of needs in the inclusive setting. They comment both on the growing class size in the district which makes full inclusion into the classroom more difficult and on the need for classroom aides and additional training.

The bottom line, however, seems to be that inclusion is working and is worthwhile. District staff acknowledge the need to improve the system; but, it's improvement of inclusive practices which is required and desired. They are not asking for a return to segregation but for an improved unified education system which addresses the individual and unique needs of all students.

In the end, perhaps it's the classroom students themselves from whom we'll learn the most. Those students in kindergarten when full inclusion began in the district are now in their final year at the intermediate school. Whether it's their age or their experience, they are the ones for whom most agree that inclusion is working the best. They are the ones we need to be watching. We just may be witnessing a generation of students for whom full inclusion of all individuals in the classroom as well as in society at large is as easy and as basic as the ABCs.

This paper was supported in part by Personnel Preparation Grants No. H029B20092-94 from the United States Department of Education Office of Special Education Programs.

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Dr. Greg Prater
Amber Rezzonico
Rebecca Pyron
Jackie Chischille
Virginia Arthur
Brenda Yellowhair
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona

EFFECTIVE TEACHERS: PERCEPTIONS OF NATIVE AMERICAN STUDENTS IN RURAL AREAS

There is evidence to support that Native American students process information different from that of non-Native students. Some examples the research has cited have been that Native learners are visual learners. They prefer to be shown materials in a hands-on approach. They like to be guided through general principles in a holistic approach to learning, rather than starting with parts to build toward the whole. They are cooperative learners and socially oriented, as opposed to task oriented and competitive. (Gilliand, 1992)

Some research has suggested abandoning the emphasis on learning styles. These researchers would rather look at what teaching accommodations have proven most effective with Native American students in the classroom. Some of the suggestions they make are to avoid spotlighting for praise or criticism, to accept silence, to be sensitive to traditional backgrounds, and be aware of possible problems between students and their language barriers. (Sawyer, 1991)

One question that has received only minimal attention is; what do the actual students perceive as effective teachers. Living in a rural area on the Navajo reservation where the students are predominantly Native American and the teachers have been predominantly non-Native, we became interested in what the students perceived as effective teachers. This question was investigated (Pavlick, 1994) with senior high school students in a neighboring community on the reservation. Pavlick's findings indicated that students prefer discipline in a relaxed classroom environment, along with one on one teacher student communications, with the belief that everyone could achieve with a positive attitude.

We conducted an informal pilot study to obtain information on Native American students perceptions of effective teachers. We surveyed a total of 158 students in three school districts, including 85 males, and 73 females, ranging from grades three to twelve. The sample included 148 Native Americans (Navajos), along with 10 non-Natives. Twenty-eight of the students surveyed were special needs students representing 17.72% of the total students surveyed.

The survey consisted of these six open ended questions:

1. What kind of teacher do you learn the most from?
2. If you were a teacher what would you do in your classroom? What wouldn't you do?
3. What one outstanding quality does your ideal teacher possess?
4. What are some things that teachers do that may prevent you from learning?
5. Do you prefer a teacher who uses English only, or one that is bilingual? Why?
6. Do you believe effective teachers need to be aware and sensitive of the culture of the students they are teaching? Explain?

The questions were read aloud to all of the students, most of these students wrote their own response directly on the survey, with the exception of the younger students who dictated their answers.

In response to question one: What kind of teacher do you learn the most from? Many students seemed to enjoy more hands-on projects, and new ideas. Students also seemed to like it when teachers treat them with respect while teaching them responsibility; to be taught in a way where students understand. Examples of specific quotes are as follows:

- I learn the most from teachers who have hands-on projects. They listen to your ideas. They don't make you feel uncomfortable when you talk to them.
- Teachers that explain new ideas and show new ideas on how to learn different things in different ways.
- Ones that show respect and teach me responsibility.
- She can always help and explain things when you don't understand.
- I learn the most from strict teachers who give homework, who are easy to be with, and have a good sense of humor.

In response to question two; if you were a teacher, what would you do in your classroom? What wouldn't you do? A summary of the responses indicate they would teach with patience and honesty, being careful to never put anyone down and to teach by the golden rule. Some of the students responses were as follows:

- Teach kids, be honest, and I wouldn't yell at my students. I would have to be patient.
- As a teacher I would try to get to know each person individually. To see how they were doing at home and at school.
- Help them but never put them down, help them understand and make learning be fun and interesting.
- I would teach my class, treat them the way they want to be treated.

When asked question three; what one outstanding quality does your ideal teacher possess?, The majority of our students responded with; respect, kindness, positive attitude, patience, and a sense of humor.

In response to question four; what are some things that teachers do that may prevent you from learning? Teachers often talk too fast, make fun of the Native Culture, and have boring lectures. A few of the comments are as follows:

- •Slangs about their culture.
- •Having boring lectures, talking too slow.
- •Letting kids mess around or talk when someone else is talking.
- •They move through a section of work too fast, and don't explain the work, often speak too quickly and don't repeat themselves.

The responses to question five were split; do you prefer a teacher who uses English only, or one that is bilingual? Why? Many students expressed enough fluency in English that a bilingual teacher was not a necessity. However many expressed a longing to learn more about their Native language. Some felt that having a Native speaker would be more beneficial.

Question six; do you believe effective teachers need to be aware and sensitive of the culture of the students they are teaching? Explain. An overwhelming response was in favor of cultural sensitivity. They believed it was important so that their culture was not made fun of. Also, so that the teacher would not be put in an unknowing situation which could allow them to offend their students. However, some expressed the fact that they still want to be taught the basic skills; reading, math, writing, with culture not being a big issue.

We realize the scientific limitations of this pilot study. However, we feel it may have some practical implications for individuals considering teaching Native American students.

In summary, we feel that teaching the culture and being fluent in the native language is not always necessary, however sensitivity to the culture and varying of teaching techniques is important. Also, having a good rapport with the Native American students is beneficial.

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John L. Anderson
Work Experience Coordinator
Arrowhead Area Education Agency
501 Bank Street
Webster City, IA 50595

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CONCEPTS FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

INTRODUCTION: Work, Lifestyle and Identity

Do students who daydream about the future think about their work's effect on their lifestyle? Lifestyle is how they will spend their life's time. More than half of the average person's waking hours are spent involved with work. Time is spent looking and applying for work. When hired there must be travel to and from work. Even during time off, workers may spend time with friends they met while working. Five main areas that are important in a person's lifestyle are as follows: Family, Friends, Leisure Activities, Spiritual Well-Being, and Work (Career). Because everyone has a different set of values (things that are important to them), lifestyles will vary from person to person. Each major part of life in some way affects all of the others. Work, for most persons, is the central activity around which they plan their daily lives. Some of the issues involved with working, work programs for students with special needs at the secondary level, and some concepts for increasing the effectiveness of these programs will be discussed here.

A person who is in secondary education is identified as being a student, which is the central activity around which they plan their daily life. In adulthood there will be a new identity that will be largely influenced by work a person does. Other areas help make up an adult's total identity, but they are known mainly by the work they do. For a given person, any one of the five main areas of lifestyle may play a more significant role than other areas.

Most persons will spend the major part of their adult lives working. When students are asked why people work the most frequent answer given is for money, an economic reason. In addition, work provides for contact with people for the feeling of belonging, a social reason. Another reason for working is for self-esteem which comes from self respect and pride in doing something well, which is a psychological reason. Thus there are important reasons for working in addition to money.

Dr. A. H. Maslow, a social psychologist, studied the basic needs of all human beings. His list of needs is sequential in that the first needs must be met before the next level of needs can be met. His list begins with the most basic needs--food and water, then safety, companionship and affection, then self-esteem, progressing toward higher level needs. Basically, if we have high self-esteem we will be more satisfied with life and conversely if we have low self-esteem we won't be as satisfied with life. Thus, it follows that how persons feel about themselves depends to a great extent on how they feel about their work. Of course, the importance of work is not the same for everyone--some persons work only for the money then seek satisfaction from life in other ways and for others work is seen as being almost their whole life. Success in life is largely measured by success in the world of work. Being successful in a career helps develop a sense of pride, and higher self-esteem, which affects personality. Without self-esteem persons cannot accept themselves worthy and if persons cannot accept themselves as being worthy they cannot expect others to do so. Being successful in work is not the only source from which self-esteem is derived; however, it is one of the major sources. Students must have a degree of self-esteem prior to a work experience program to have success while in the program. A student's self-esteem derived prior to a work experience program is an area of discussion that will not be included at this time. Unfortunately, some of today's adults "fell into" their work. A job happened to be vacant, so they took it. That job may have determined their career and to a great extent their lifestyle. Adults should choose their work instead of the work choosing the person.

MAJOR REFORM INITIATIVES

Dr. James L. Hoerner, Professor of Vocational Education at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, presented the following information at the 1994 Tech Prep Conference in Des Moines, Iowa in March. The time has come to make major, systemic change in the role our educational system plays in today's society. We must shift from a knowledge, content-based educational system to a system where the major purpose is to develop success oriented pathways of learning through which everyone is being prepared to be independent, self-supporting, productive, and contributing members of society. This will necessitate that all educators shift from being disseminators of knowledge to facilitators of learning for life's application. Our educational institutions must become human resource development institutions where the mission is to prepare all students for further learning and productive employment, whether they are going to be a lawyer, medical doctor, bulldozer driver, nurse, or computer operator.

There are several major reform initiatives, some of which are: (1) Tech prep, (2) Integration of academics and vocational education, (3) Applied academics, (4) Outcome-based education, (5) Work-based learning, and (6) School-to-work transition.[1]

Nationally, approximately 25% of youth drop out of high school. Of the approximately 50% of our high school graduates who begin college, about 50% do not complete a baccalaureate degree. Therefore, it appears that at least 50% of our young people fail, drop out, or do not complete the educational pathway they begin. This also results in at least 50% of young people attempting to move into the work force with little preparation. The United States has the greatest higher educational system in the world for preparing the top 20-30% of the workforce. The question that now needs to be answered is *WHO should provide the education for the 70% of the workforce who*

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[1] Dr. James L. Hoerner, "Work-Based Learning: The Key to School-to-Work Transition," 1994 Tech Prep Conference, Des Moines, Iowa, March 31, 1994, p. 2.

do not need a bachelor's degree or more? That's the question the major reform initiatives are addressing.[2] A major problem in shifting to applied, work based learning is with the phenomenon that the majority of educators have spent little time in work environments outside of education.[3] As this discussion continues it will become known that some of the career related programs in the schools of Iowa including the Work Experience Program offered by Work Experience Coordinators of the Arrowhead Area Education Agency have made attempts to address these issues in the past, and hopefully will be flexible to adjust with changes that need to be made to provide career experiences for students with special needs in the future. It has been made known that in some schools there are staff and administrators who would like to see more or similar kinds of programs that are being offered available to students in addition to those who are identified as having special needs.

While working with persons in businesses in Iowa communities one of the concerns often expressed by these persons is that there is a need for employees who have developed adequate skills for getting a job, who have entry level skills, and well developed job-keeping skills. In addition, few persons coming into the work arena have the skills needed for entry level work in occupations that are available.

The number of unskilled occupations available is significantly decreasing (1950 - 60% of the workers were unskilled, 1989 - 35% of workers unskilled, and by 2000 it is projected that 15% of occupations will require unskilled workers). Since 1979 approximately 2 million heavy industry jobs have been lost and replaced with 1.5 million jobs in service, custodial, and fast food occupations. Another interesting projection for the year 2000 is that 80% of the job openings will be for persons without college degrees.[4] These figures are included to demonstrate some of the changes taking place in the work world. It may be argued that these changes are undesirable with evidence cited to support that position, but nevertheless they are occurring. Then given the fact that they are occurring it behooves educational systems to strive to prepare students to meet the needs that society is placing on them. It is for these reasons that it is increasingly difficult for young persons to gain employment without training for a specific occupation. The negative side also is that it is becoming more difficult for students with special needs to locate employment. There is a positive aspect in that there are more programs slowly becoming available to provide training for these students. When training provided is appropriate for the student it is felt that more work opportunities will be available for young persons, including those with special needs, due to having better developed entry level skills.

For several years a part of the realm of education at the secondary level in Iowa has attempted to address the issue of readiness and preparation for work for young persons who by given criteria have special needs. One goal of this paper is to share some perspectives for methods to meet and serve students with those needs with regard to preparation for working, and to the maximum extent helping them become as productive and contributing to society in adulthood as possible.

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[2] Ibid., p. 4.

[3] Ibid., p. 12.

[4] Connie Heinen, "Cut the Apron Strings: The Empowerment of Assertiveness and Self Advocacy Skills for Secondary Students with Disabilities," p. 3.

CURRICULUM

It would seem appropriate to begin with a career-related curriculum for these youngsters at some level of their educational process, which may be determined individually. Possibly this needs to be accomplished with what some proponents suggest as an ICDP (Individual Career Development Plan) beginning at a determined time in the student's educational program.[5] It is acknowledged that young people may and will change their thoughts on work and careers as students and as adults, but it would serve as a reference for initiating career plans that can be modified while continuing the educational process.

It is suggested that educators develop a curriculum for students having special needs that has a strong sequence of events that are designed to enable the young person to have marketable entry level occupational skills upon completion of the secondary program or the skills necessary to enter another educational/training setting where skills acquired at the secondary level can be continued, strengthened, and further developed. This does not mean that every individual can and will be competitively employed in private business or industry upon completion of their secondary program or at some later date. It does mean that students should be assisted to develop skills and abilities to their maximum potential. The intent is not that career development should be accomplished to the exclusion of academic learning, fine arts, physical and emotional development, and leisure activities, but in conjunction with these components of the educational process. To accomplish these goals a coordinated concentrated effort is needed by all those entities and staff persons involved in the process. It has become apparent that no individual service provider or entity can provide the support that is needed for some individuals to achieve their potential, but with coordinated effort on the part of a number of service providers that are available much can be done to assist in developing students to their potential in terms of occupational choices and skills. The key factor appears to be a coordinated, unified effort by those involved, which in one word might be termed "teamwork." To continue this discussion suggestions are going to be advanced which could serve as a basis for developing plans. It is not suggested that this is "the method," but rather "a method" for developing plans.

A sequence of events has traditionally been planned for secondary students with special needs in regard to work readiness. The initial phase is usually career exploration, when the student is placed in a work setting experiencing what it is like to work in that occupation and setting with the guidance of a resource person. The next phase has been career training, when the student has agreed to participate at a site to learn specific skills for an occupation. The goal for the next phase is to have the student employed on a part-time basis. The sequence does not always follow this pattern for various reasons. For several years some opportunities have been available for continued training/education for students with special needs beyond their local program. This is encouraged; however, there are for some students, barriers that exist to beginning and completing continued training. More programs are being developed in an attempt to provide services to address the needs of students; hopefully being designed differently to accommodate specific types of needs students have.

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[5] Dr. James L. Hoerner, "Work-Based Learning The Key to School-to-Work Transition," 1994 Tech Prep Conference, Des Moines, Iowa, March 31, 1994, p. 3.

In addition it would seem appropriate to strengthen the career curriculum in advance of the exploration, training, employee sequence or in conjunction with it by staff persons in the school. One method for approaching this is to provide a concentrated effort on career awareness for groups of students by making a given number of visits to various places to observe people who are employed. Students can be given instructions or parameters of what to look for, questions to ask, and specific things to be observed and learned from the visits which could result in discussion and projects for them to work on individually or in small groups in a classroom. Another activity for students could be for each of them to initiate by personal contact or phone call with possibly three (or some given number) of workers to arrange a meeting date and time with the workers who are in occupations they may be interested in for gathering information needed to complete requirements for the assigned activities. Again, there needs to be written guidelines for gathering necessary information. These are examples of techniques that can be implemented as part of a career awareness curriculum. Other techniques could be utilized as well; however, a key factor is that each student be accountable for selecting careers to learn about, initiating contacts with workers, and gathering pertinent information to assist them in making decisions about careers they may want to explore and that may be appropriate for them in the future. Students do need to be guided and given a structured format to follow in their pursuit of making appropriate career choices. It is felt that if they are given a variety of opportunities and experiences with support, guidance, and consultation with adults in the work environment they will be better able to begin and continue to make realistic career choices. It is often difficult for students to make appropriate career choices when they have little knowledge or experience upon which to make and base a decision affecting one of the most crucial aspects of their lives.

Another important area of preparation for the work world is to make the area of Job Seeking/Job Keeping a part of the curriculum prior to or in conjunction with the sequence of work readiness activities. Examples of activities that can be included in this portion of the curriculum are gathering personal data and organizing it, completing actual application blanks as neatly and accurately as possible, handwriting and typing or printing letters of application, printing resumes or personal data sheets, telephoning for interviews and role playing interviews etc. Other activities could be included in this portion of the curriculum. These activities seem to be most successful when done individually or in small groups as part of a class with grades and credit given for successful completion of the activities.

For students with special needs, it is the educators' challenge to meet those needs and in many situations that is being done, but in some situations students are not being challenged to become more proficient in these areas. The potential for a great number of students with special needs goes far beyond what is being developed in these curriculum areas.

It is reiterated that the business community is interested and eager for the most part to cooperate and participate in providing experiences for young people to learn, providing the program is well structured, conducted and monitored. Most businesses are asked frequently to make contributions to community functions and projects. There are unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled workers in the community who have talents that can be learned by young persons that can be utilized in a productive, contributing manner. It seems that businesses are more willing to cooperate in career exploration and career training than in paid employment with a student in a career program. By providing a learning environment for a student it can be seen as another way to make a contribution to the community without it being a monetary contribution. It may be argued that a business is seeking free or inexpensive labor by participating in career exploration and training; however, state and federal regulations must be followed to prevent this from occurring. Most businesses are not seeking free labor, but if this should occur, it is recommended that the student learner/business relationship be terminated. Businesses usually perceive providing a setting for a student to learn in, as opposed to them coming to work as a paid employee, differently. The exploration and training situations are viewed by business persons as a way to contribute and provide opportunities for learning in an environment that is likely not available in the traditional school building. The concept of students in a school program coming in for a part-time job often implies that the student has the skills and abilities to do the work upon entry. Because it is a paid situation there usually are greater expectations placed on the student. The student may or may not be prepared for this kind of competitiveness. These comments are not meant to be interpreted that there is not a place for paid experiences, but for most students it appears to be beneficial to be involved in a paid experience after having been included in exploration, training, and the related curriculum activities which were discussed previously. An important goal is paid employment in an appropriate career for the student.

When business and resource persons are given ownership in writing a program around what they have to offer there seems to be more willingness for them to participate. It may be perceived as a method of control; however, there is a vital concern for having persons available in the future with skills to compete and fulfill these occupations. A specific occupation may be done differently in one business than another, therefore it is beneficial for a student to experience different methods and techniques but it may not be a goal for the student to experience the same career in more than one business. There is benefit for the student occasionally experiencing an occupation in one setting with regard to that occupation in another setting with all the variables that need to be dealt with from one setting to another. Often after students are given the opportunity to explore or receive training in a career they are offered a part-time job in the business. This is not always an option and there should be no obligation at this time in the work experience program for a business to employ a student. The student's relationship in the occupation within the business should only be based on the student's vocational needs at this time in the program.

Many students are expected to know how to work or do a specific job when in reality they may have had little or in some cases no exposure to the concept of work, work ethic, responsibility, role models to follow, etc. It is a difficult challenge for educators and schools to attempt to meet these needs and they may not have the human, financial, and physical resources available, but some of the goals toward career development are attainable for some students more than for others. By creating a curriculum, especially at the secondary level, some of these concerns will be addressed to enable students to have some exposure to the work world through the school curriculum if they have not had the opportunity in their personal environment.

EXPECTATIONS

Most students can be given the opportunity and responsibility to be away from the classroom or high school building. Occasionally students are not ready or cannot function with the semi-independence that is required to be successful in a career program. In these situations it is vitally important that all entities and persons involved support a common effort to help change the student's behavior to comply with procedures and requirements to make the experience positive. Included are the student, the resource site and person, parents, local school administration and staff, the area education agency administration and staff, and the possibility of one or more of a host of other agencies and service providers that may be involved. It is difficult for individuals/professionals to have a positive impact on achieving acceptable behaviors if a unified effort to work toward making positive changes does not exist. A goal for a career program is to stage that whole process to be as much like an employee/employer relationship as possible even though the student may not be an employee of the business. For most students the program can be very beneficial; however, for some students circumstances are such that a career program involving being away from a classroom or building may not be a priority at a given time. There may be circumstances in a student's life that prevent them from benefiting or being successful in a career program. Students for whom this is a problem every effort must be made as a team to make a well planned decision concerning participation in the portion of the program requiring a certain level of maturity and semi-independence for success to be achieved. If in the event a decision is made for placement at a site and that student for some reason is not demonstrating acceptable behaviors or benefiting from the program and after the concentrated effort by a unified group of professionals there must be a method for terminating the experience. A career program may be considered again at a later date.

While the behaviors being discussed are usually not criminal in nature, a quote is taken from *Scanning U.S. for Innovative Crime Solutions* written by Phoebe Wall Howard and George Clifford III, Des Moines Register staff writers, which appears in the Des Moines Sunday Register dated May 29, 1994. Further discussion indicates an effective approach to counter youth problems by playing the role of concerned neighbor. "The key, says program coordinator Kent Roberts of the Youth and Family Office, is to bringing all the public and private agencies of the community together. Roberts brings juveniles together with people who can help them. When children are in crisis, the program coordinator sometimes brings all the key adults in their lives--parents, teachers, ministers--together to develop a plan to fix the situation. "Do you know how powerful that is? Every aspect of that person's life is before them," Roberts said. In that same article, Polk County Prosecuting Attorney John Sarcone discusses youth offenders who fail to meet prescribed programs and drives home the point that there are consequences for bad behavior, such as a short stay in the County Jail for minor behaviors. "It has a very chilling effect," Sarcone said. "They realize we mean business."[6] Again, this is used as an example of how some young people function in society. To a lesser degree students are seen in schools with these kinds of attitudes and behaviors. Little or nothing can be accomplished by way of changing behaviors to those expectations of the school, staff and workplace if someone in the realm of adults in the student's midst allows, permits or enables the inappropriate behavior to occur. It is here that the concentrated unified effort on the part of all adults in the student's life is critical in changing that person's behavior to conform with the expectations of the school, business, and professional staff persons. Considerable issue is being made here of students whose behavior is marginal or does not permit them to participate in career programs successfully. Not all students who are served in these programs have these difficulties. Many students participate and function well with few if any concerns and are able to earn the trust of the adults around them. It seems there are getting to be more students who function on the "borderline" with behaviors for school and career programs that are of concern. Their participation is not entirely acceptable; however, it is not totally unacceptable either. It appears that these students have the idea that they will do what is needed to remain in the program. A problem with this is that it is not uncommon for a student with this attitude to "slip" and that behavior then is cause for concern, action, consequences, etc., by those to whom the student is responsible. Another aspect that is being observed with students is that often times in a career program some students can achieve success which may have rarely, if ever, occurred previously. For some students there seems to be an underlying cause for what appears to be a "sabotage" of themselves, thus creating a situation where much of the experience is positive, but in some regard a "problem" arises to create a less successful experience.

Students often are limited in their understanding of how tremendously beneficial positive career experiences can be for them at the present time and in the future. Business persons usually can give an indication whether a student has potential for being successful in the work or for further training for the career. These persons are willing to provide character references for assisting students to get employment. It is somewhat questionable the way information concerning a student's or worker's work characteristics seem to sometimes become known to others in the community or even among competing businesses. Extraordinary positive attributes about a student seem to become general information at times, as do extraordinarily negative work characteristics. Students often display little concern since they feel it may not be important because they will be leaving the community for work elsewhere or for continued education/training away from the local community. It is evident that a high percentage of students with special needs do not leave their home community or if they do many return at a later time. It is not uncommon for students to display these traits while participating in career programs. Careful consideration needs to be given not to passively allow students to go through school without the benefits of learning from work experience programs, but also to guard against enabling a student to continue in an experience with inappropriate behaviors. There must be consequences for inappropriate behaviors while in a work experience program. There is a need for policies to be established with administration and staff of the local school, and administration and staff of the area education agency. Perhaps each situation needs to be dealt with on an individual basis. Parents and students need to be involved also with verbal and written expectations, recommendations and consequences for failing to modify inappropriate behavior. If after attempts are made to modify behavior, difficulties still persist, the student must be returned to a more structured environment of the school building. To continue an experience for a student with problem behaviors is doing a disservice to the student, the school, business, program, etc. In some instances the business, resource person or some other person may not allow the problem behavior to occur over a period of time. It is crucial to closely monitor concerns resource persons have about a student's participation and having the option of making a decision to terminate the experience. This should be a mutual decision by the business or resource person and the coordinator of the program with decisive action taken when necessary. Soon after this decision is made a staffing needs to be held to determine the direction for the student or a change in their program. Businesses and their employees and policies vary also. There are many factors, some of which are the season, pace of work, resource person's job description, public image, safety, etc. Some businesses will tolerate behaviors that others will not. It is, again, crucial for the coordinator to monitor the site periodically as needed. It is also stressed again that precautions be taken to insure that further enabling of inappropriate habits and characteristics are not being developed and fostered.

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[6] Phoebe Wall Howard and George Clifford III, "Scanning U.S. for Innovative Crime Solutions," Des Moines Sunday Register, May 29, 1994, Section A, p. 2.

Sometimes businesses choose not to participate in a career program. They may reveal their reasons for not participating at that time or they may not, but even though it may appear that the business should participate, it is almost always for a good reason that a business chooses not to participate at a given time.

TRANSPORTATION, WRITTEN PLANS, AND INSURANCE

Another area to be discussed is the importance for some form of transportation to be utilized for some students--those for whom walking is not feasible or when weather conditions prevent walking to and from a site. Various methods of transportation may be utilized including the student's personal vehicle, a city or regional (area) transportation vehicle, school transportation or parents. It is highly desirable to have a reliable method of transportation available. Personal transportation sometimes can be an area of concern for arriving to and from the site on a scheduled and timely manner. It is critical for an alternative method of transportation to be available in the event it is needed. For some students, participation is directly dependent on the availability of regularly scheduled transportation being provided.

Written plans and agreements are a crucial component to insure that all persons involved in the program can be apprised of expectations of the student most importantly, but also the business and the resource person. For each student's experience an agreement and written plan should be developed with input from those involved including the student, the business and resource person, and coordinator of the program. Experiences appear to be more beneficial when at least some of each person's involvement can be expressed in the written plan. In many instances it is not recommended that a pre-written plan be used for a given occupation, but to tailor that plan with regard to how that occupation is accomplished in the given setting. Individual plans are of significant importance for experiences to be more successful. It is also significantly important for written plans to be accurate, concise, and minimal yet serving as a focal point from which to communicate about the student's experience. Evaluation procedures can be a part of written plans thus reducing the amount of written material required. The coordinator, in all likelihood, will need to gather input, prepare, get signatures, copy and distribute the paperwork.

Student insurance coverage is vital because it is often the first concern a business person has when being approached about the possibility of their business being considered as a site for a learning experience for students. It is especially important that the distinction be made between career exploration, vocational training experiences and paid work experiences. The Iowa Code indicates that businesses and employers must provide workman's compensation insurance coverage for its employees. Necessary precautions must be taken to be certain that employers are in compliance with having all employees included for insurance coverage in workman's compensation policies. For those students who are in cooperative career exploration and vocational training experiences arranged by a coordinator, there will likely not be insurance coverage provided by the business. Therefore, it is vitally important for adequate coverage to be provided by the local school or the area education agency that can be verified with the business persons to alleviate their concerns about illnesses, injuries and property damages that could occur. The need for adequate insurance coverage for students in career programs is strongly stressed given the possibility for accidents, injuries and damages to occur being greater for students who become involved in career programs away from the classroom. Most business persons are aware of state and federal regulations including OSHA (Occupational Safety an Health Act) and other regulations for the workplace. Business persons have become very safety conscious and have valid concerns about the well being of persons in their work environment.

CONCLUSION

Each of these topics could be expanded upon and discussed further. These concepts and perceptions are not all inclusive of programs designed to serve students with special needs. It is recognized that there may be other views concerning these concepts. Those views are welcome and can be expressed orally or in written form. Even though statistics quoted such as WHO should provide the education for the 70% of the workforce for whom a baccaleureate degree is not feasible refer to total school populations, a distinction is made concerning the concepts expressed in the remainder of the paper in regard to the students with special needs population in public schools in Iowa. It is felt that work experience programs serving students with special needs be a high priority of the curriculum for these students while attending a secondary program.

Dr. Demetrios Vassiliou & Mr. Dave Johnson
North Dakota Center for Disabilities,
Minot State University, Minot, ND

NORTH DAKOTA'S RURAL TRAINING PROJECTS: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

INTRODUCTION

Ten years have passed since the initiation of the North Dakota Statewide MR/DD Facility Staff Training Program. Since 1983, the program has experienced a steady growth, maturing and evolving to keep pace with the expansion and training needs of the state's community based programs and services. Critical to the program's success has been the cooperative relationships among the Department of Human Services, Minot State University, and community providers. State certified regional trainers employed by local providers are linked to the University and have helped the system remain accountable to changing agency needs.

Rural Delivery System

North Dakota has a land mass of 70,665 square miles and a population of 625,000--with a population density of nine persons per square mile. Distances between cities are vast. Developmental disability facilities are scattered throughout the state. The training program is a model that uniquely meets the needs of rural states. It provides a "circuit rider", taking technical assistance to the designated D.D. regional trainers working with facility staff dispersed throughout the state. The training program, with its career ladder options, is available and accessible to every agency and every employee providing services to individuals with developmental disabilities within the state of North Dakota.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

Full-time direct service staff are required to demonstrate knowledge and skills in topic areas addressed in 14 training modules. These skills are taught at provider sites by certified regional trainers employed by the service providers. Full time staff must complete the training within 18 months to remain employed with the agency. Providers are encouraged to require the same of part-time staff. In addition, agencies and individual staff have the option of selecting from 20 additional modules dealing with aging issues, communication, leisure, behavior management, basic health and working with families.

The training program offers a seven step professional development sequence for career advancement. The steps include an entry level orientation, "position based competency training", a Certificate of Completion of required training modules, Advanced Certification, an Associate of Arts degree in Developmental Disabilities, a Bachelor of Science degree in Mental Retardation (Non-Teaching), and a Master of Science degree in Special Education.

Learning options include formal instruction, on-site demonstration, mentoring and self-study with or without discussion-group participation. Staff may "test out" of individual modules by demonstration of required competencies.

Key program elements include comprehensive but flexible training materials, a statewide system of individual training records, state standards and certification for direct service staff training, a career training sequence leading to academic degrees, and program consistency through time and across the state.

RESULTS

Certified Staff Members

Since the initiation of the training program in July,1983; thousands of staff members have been enrolled and received training. As of June 30, 1994, 2,154 staff members have been certified. These individuals have successfully completed the competencies established by the State Council on Developmental Disabilities which include 14 modules and a series of supervised field experiences. From the 2,154 who received certification, 240 were certified during the 1993-1994 academic year.

Advanced Certification

Minot State University has established an advanced certification program for those staff members of agency organizations who have already acquired the certificate of completion. These individuals now have the option to pursue an advanced certification program. The program consists of 20 modules dealing with aging issues, communication, leisure/recreation, behavior intervention, sexuality, and nutrition as well as a number of additional practica. Staff members who successfully complete the advanced certification requirements are issued the advanced certificate.

During the 1993-1994 academic year, 23 staff members completed advanced certification requirements and were issued a certificate.

Associate of Arts Degree

The Associate of Arts degree in Developmental Disabilities is an additional component of the training program. Minot State University awards the two year degree upon satisfactory completion of the designated 27 Semester Hours of developmental disabilities course work and the designated 38 SHs of general education requirements. The AA degree course work is available only to personnel employed in approved residential and day programs serving individuals with mental retardation/developmental disabilities.

Since the initiation of the training program in 1983, 91 individuals have successfully completed the degree requirements. Of those individuals, nine completed the degree from 1992 to 1994.

Survey of Graduates

A number of individuals (n=21) who completed the requirements for the Associate of Arts degree in Developmental Disabilities were surveyed. They were asked to respond to a number of questions. Some of the questions and answers are listed below:

Why did you pursue the AA degree in Developmental Disabilities?

- The opportunity was so convenient that I felt I could not pass it up.
- The price per credit was so low it was irresistible.
- It was a wonderful opportunity to get a degree. Many businesses do not offer this.
- The training helped me as a case manager. It updated my previous course work and made my knowledge more current and accurate.

- It was a validation of my 12 years of experience in the field of developmental disabilities.
- It increased my knowledge and improved my job performance.

How did the degree help you in your profession?

- It allowed me to keep my job.
- The training applied directly to the daily requirements of my job.
- It gave me skills to assist the population I serve and confidence to pursue a higher degree.
- It provided me with a good foundation and I have been given several promotions since I completed the Associate of Arts degree.
- I got hooked on increasing my educational base. I eventually completed an endorsement in regular education, grades 1-8, plus a Masters Degree in Severe and Multiple Disabilities.
- It built my self-confidence and reinforced my belief of education.
- The career ladder approach encourages staff members to learn more about their jobs. As staff members achieved levels of training, I witnessed a growth in self-esteem. They began setting goals for themselves. They believed that they could learn and grow.

The 21 respondents when asked to rate the career ladder approach of training on a scale of 1-5, with 1 being poorly designed and 5 very well designed, rated the program with a mean of 4.11.

North Dakota Paraeducator Training Project

Armed with the successful model utilized in the community facilities programs, the North Dakota Center for Disabilities (NDCD), a University Affiliated Program (UAP), expanded and modified the program to address the needs of paraeducators. A three year federal grant was initiated in October of 1992 to design, implement and deliver comprehensive training to ND's 850 special education paraeducators. The program is a collaborative effort between the ND Department of Public Instruction (DPI), the state's 31 special education units, Minot State University (MSU) and NDCD.

Research indicated that paraeducator usage in the state was increasing, especially in the special education field. Reasons for the increase included factors associated with the rural nature of the state including: lack of certified personnel in some special education areas, lack of resources for more professional educators, and the need for increased individual programming for students with more severe disabilities who were entering the school setting in increasing numbers.

In 1991, North Dakota Paraeducator Training Project personnel conducted a needs assessment survey in the area of paraeducator training. Respondents indicated a need, and desire, for further training to be conducted on an on-going basis, close to the communities in which the paraeducators were employed, (i.e. field based training) for which there were opportunities for advancement (career ladder).

In the project's first year, four pilot sites were selected for training, and curriculum development was initiated. The second year of the project saw an additional 14 special education units brought into the program, with the remaining 13 units joining in the third year. The collaborative effort was highlighted by the establishment of a curriculum review committee consisting of representatives from special education units, the DPI, and North Dakota Paraeducator Training Project (NDPTP) personnel. The committee aids in the production, modification and adaptation of available training materials, as well as development of new training materials specifically geared towards the paraeducator audience.

A Consumer Advisory Council has also been active within the project. A group of five individuals meet to discuss the project's goals, objectives and accomplishments with team personnel. These individuals are themselves disabled, or family members of individuals with disabilities and offer a unique perspective to the project.

Curriculum Development/Career Ladder

The areas of training for the program were developed according to the surveyed needs of program participants. Each paraeducator is not expected to undergo all areas of instruction. The initial training has been placed into a two tier system. Tier one modules are broad based and introductory in nature, and as such are required by DPI for all paraeducators. The four modules that comprise the first step, or the certification level, have been placed into a four semester hour class: Sp. Ed. 105: Paraeducator Orientation to Special Education. The four include:

- Roles and Responsibilities of Paraeducators,

- Introduction to Disabilities and Effective Instruction,
- Serving Students with Disabilities in Integrated Settings, and
- Strengthening Behavior.

Tier two modules are more specifically geared toward areas in which paraeducators provide aid to students and other educational personnel. The next level on the career ladder, advanced certification, is attained when paraeducators take an additional 20 clock hours of training (four to five additional modules)from tier two offerings. These include:

Sp. Ed. 101 - Introduction to Special Education
- Foundation Principles of Value Based Services
- The Team Approach to Individual Education Plans
- Collaboration and Teaming

Sp. Ed. 111 - Health Care and Paraeducator's Responsibilities #1
- Medication Training
- C.P.R. Certification
- First Aid Certification
- Signs and Symptoms of Illness
- Control of Infection and Communicable Diseases

Sp. Ed. 112 - Health Care and Paraeducator's Responsibilities #2
- Epilepsy and Seizure Control
- Positioning, Turning and Transferring
- Oral Hygiene and Dental Care
- Nutrition for Everyday Life
- Feeding Techniques

Sp. Ed. 120 - Introduction to Behavior Management
- Observation Techniques
- Writing Behavioral Objectives and Measuring Behavior
- Introduction of Assessment and Setting Goals
- Achieving Goals and Objectives

Sp. Ed. 130 - Organization of Leisure Time and Playground Supervision
- Recreation and Leisure Training
- Playground Integration

Sp. Ed. 140 - Human Development I & II

Sp. Ed. 221 - Issues in Early Childhood Education

Sp. Ed. 250 - Developing Communication Skills
- Interpersonal Communication
- The Framework of Interaction and Communication
- Recognizing and Responding to Many Forms of Communication
- Increasing Understanding
- Increasing Communication

Sp. Ed. 275 - Effective Transition from School to Work/Adult Services
- Historical and Philosophical Aspects of Transition
- Methods, Regulations and Policies for Effective Transition
- Role of Parents, Schools and Adult Agencies in Transition

As new areas for training come into existence, new modules and classes will be added. The curriculum is a growing entity.

The training is available to all paraeducators in the state. An additional incentive for paraeducators undergoing training is the opportunity to receive undergraduate college credit, once competency is achieved in each course. The paraeducator can receive college credit for a $30 recording fee. Some of these credits can be used toward an Associate of Arts and/or Bachelor of Science (non-teaching) degree. The college credit option has also been approved by DPI for recertification or relicensure of those paraeducators with teaching degrees. The college credit is strictly optional, but has been seen as an outstanding benefit for those wishing to continue their education.

The diversity of the individual special education units in the state (size, number of paraeducators, distance between schools, etc.) required that a number of different options be made available for delivery of instruction. The modules can be presented for instruction in a variety of ways to meet the needs of the various units and the individual paraeducators. Large group instruction, small group format, on-the-job demonstrations, or self-instructional options are all available.

Adjunct instructors were selected by the individual special education units based on experience in the field and ability to work with adults. These individuals received training in materials and methodologies of the project, and then began providing instruction and coordination in their individual units with assistance from NDPTP personnel. Project personnel have tried to accommodate the adjunct instructor's needs by providing comprehensive materials and instructional aids for each module.

The modules are written at an average reading level, with an emphasis on detailed explanations of novel concepts introduced by the modules. The modules are split into lessons, with objectives, feedback exercises and answer keys to guide self-instruction. Overhead masters and paraeducator notes are also developed for each module, along with a list of various videotaped materials that will enhance instruction.

Evaluation/Record Keeping

Evaluation of competency is achieved through the pre- and posttests which accompany each module. The tests are fairly objective in nature (true/false, multiple choice, matching, and brief listing questions). After the pretest and presentations are completed, the paraeducators will be able to study the modules and complete the feedback exercises in order to prepare for the posttest. If paraeducators do not achieve competency on the posttest, 85% or better, they may retake the posttest at a later time.

NDPTP personnel are keeping track of the training undergone by each paraeducator in each special education unit. This information will be shared with DPI for paraeducator funding purposes. DPI has offered grant monies to the individual units with which to carry out training activities. DPI has also indicated that at the end of the three year grant period, they will begin reimbursing special education units for paraeducators based on the amount of training they have undergone.

Summary/Future

As the federal funding for the NDPTP ends, NDCD has been actively seeking ways in which to continue the training of paraeducators into the future. Training the trainers, updating materials and record keeping are viewed as the most important responsibilities for the project to preserve. NDCD personnel have initiated activities including offering training and materials outside of North Dakota, seeking private foundation training and adapting training to other pertinent populations (regular educators) to accomplish these goals.

Noranne Yeager
Chadron State College
Chadron, NE

INCLUSION: THE RESULTS OF ATTENDANCE, ACHIEVEMENT, AND SELF-CONCEPT IN A CLASS-WITHIN-A-CLASS MODEL

Today, many students with disabilities are being served in the general education classroom (U. S. Deptment of Education, 1992). Maintaining students with disabilities in the general education classroom is the least restrictive environment but other placement options are considered if it has been documented that their program is without benefit or is detrimental to the progress of other students. As the general class placement of students with disabilities has been implemented, the focus has been on social integration (Madden & Slavin, 1983; Stainback & Stainback, 1984) as well as academic progress (Zigmond, Levin, & Laurie, 1985; Schulte, Osborne & McKinney, 1990). The policy of inclusion in many schools has been implemented without consistent research of its efficacy for the students involved or without clear roles of personnel involved in the educational services of these students. As Keogh (1993) stated, "Educational policy is not always based on research." Research has been secondarily implemented to determine which practices and settings were effective for what particular groups of students. If the placement was within the general class, as in the practice and policy of inclusion, then research is needed to study the outcomes for students, all students, within that placement.

Class-Within-A-Class Inclusion Model

Class-Within-A-Class (CWC) is an alternative model for the delivery of special services to students with disabilities. This model of inclusion has been in existence since 1984 at a suburban/rural school of approximately 1,200 students, kindergarten through grade twelve in a midwestern state. In comparison to other inclusion models, CWC has components which have evolved and are emphasized in the training of volunteered personnel to meet the needs of classes with students with diabilities (Hudson, 1993). Special educators and general educators collaborate to plan and teach all students in a classroom. Emphasis has been on the delivery of the instruction not watering down the curriculum or the grading system. For active student participation, teachers are inserviced and prepared in effective practices of frequent questioning, different cognitive levels of presentation and questions, guided practice of skills, and cooperative group activities (Brophy & Good, 1986). In planning instruction and curriculum, the use of teaching strategies, advanced organizers, study guides, visual organizers, and learning strategies are implemented to help meet the needs of different levels of the students.

Selection of the students included or maintained in the CWC general education class are students with mild to moderate disabilities: more students with learning disabilities and less students categorized as mentally retarded, or behaviorally disordered. The students with disabilities were clustered in the CWC classes in a ratio of not more than 1/3 to 2/3 students without disabilities. The students with disabilities who were not selected for CWC classes are offered the continuum of services as mandated by federal and state law for special education.

The CWC goal has been described as a two-fold concern. The students with disabilities were monitored and measured within the general education class for academic and social progress and specific goals and objectives stated on their individual educational programs. The students without disabilities have been measured as well to ensure their continued progress. Followup evaluative surveys have been administered to measure the level of satisfaction of all parents and students involved in the CWC model (Klamm, 1989). Overall, the CWC model has been in existence long enough to eliminate the Hawthorne effect and to look at the longitudinal effects of the placement.

Attendance

According to the U.S. Department of Education (1992) students with disabilities attendance is positively correlated to adjustment and performance in school and negatively to the drop-out rate at the secondary level. Many students with high absenteeism had difficulties in passing subject-area courses. One study (Ziomek & Schoenenberger, 1983) with Title I math and reading programs found low but positive correlation between better attendance and higher achievement. When total number of days were correlated to placement, students with disabilities who were placed with a greater percentage of time in the regular class versus placement in a pull-out model had better attendance (Javitz & Wagner, 1990;

Truesdell & Abramson, 1992).

Results of Attendance in CWC

There was no significant difference on the mean number of days of attendance for the two groups of students.

Table 1
t Test of Attendance
of Students in CWC

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-value	P <.05
General Ed	62	170.5	8.3	.61	.54 NS
Special Ed	31	171.5	6.1		

Studies of Achievement

Although most researchers report enduring academic deficits of students with disabilities (Kavale, 1988; LaBuda & DeFries, 1988), longitudinal studies comparing the academic measures of students with disabilities reported a decline in achievement from year to year (McKinney & Feagans, 1984).

Reported correlations between academic self-concept with achievement (Boersma & Chapman, 1981; Lyon & MacDonald, 1990) have been somewhat positive. Although poor academic achievement is thought to contribute to the negative self-concept of students, poor self-concept alone can not be a predictor of achievement.

Results of Achievement in CWC

There were differences in the means of the individual sûbtests of the Missouri Mastery Achievement Test (MMAT), but the increases or decreases of the means were similar in both groups of students for all subtests. The analysis of the subtest means of the MMAT by a multivariate analysis of variance was statistically significant, F(5,96) = 11.14, p = .000* for the two groups of students at the .025 probability level. In the Groups by Time Interaction, there was no statistical significance, F(5,95) = 1.25, p = .293. In the Time Effect (from 1993 to 1994), there were significant changes in the science subtests which increased and in the social studies subtests which decreased.

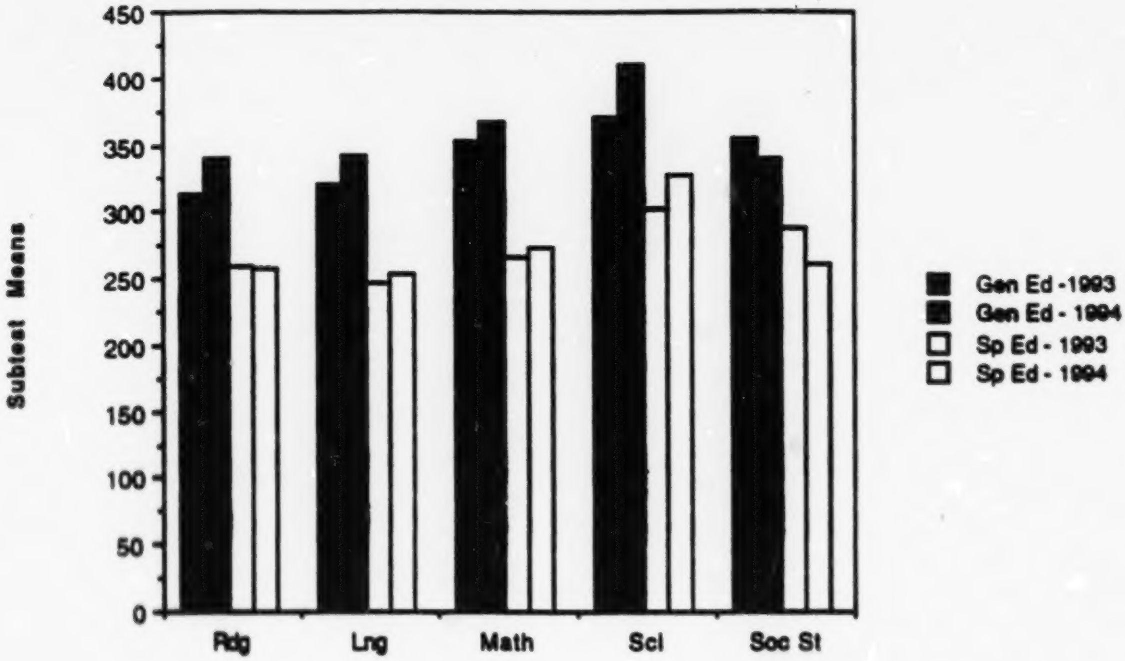

Figure 1: Missouri Mastery Achievement Test Subtest Means for 1993 and 1994 of Students Identified in Class-Within-A-Class

Self-Concept

In studies where students with disabilities were compared to other students, some studies reported a significant difference in the self-concept (Battle & Blowers, 1982; Rogers & Saklofske, 1985), whereas other studies reported no significant difference (Chapman & Boersman, 1980; Tollefson, Tracy, Johnsen, Buenning, Farmer, &

Barke, 1982). Over time, researchers speculated that the amount of time in special education classes may be a detriment to the self-concept of students. In a study by Kruger and Wandle (1992) which compared the self-concept scores with Piers Harris total scores, the elementary students differed significantly from the secondary students showing an interaction between achievement and grade level. When the variable of time in special education was used to analyzed the academic self-concept, the self-concept was positively correlated with time spent in special education, whereas global self concept was negatively correlated. With conflicting results of research, the failure to find consistent effects of placement on self-concept among students with disabilities reflects similar findings regarding the merits of integrated versus segregated remedial programs.

Results of Self-Concept in CWC

There was no significant difference in the means of the two student groups for the total score or the academic cluster of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. There was no statistical significance between one year and the next. Both groups of students were at the normative range of the 80 itemized test scored in the direction of a positive self-concept.

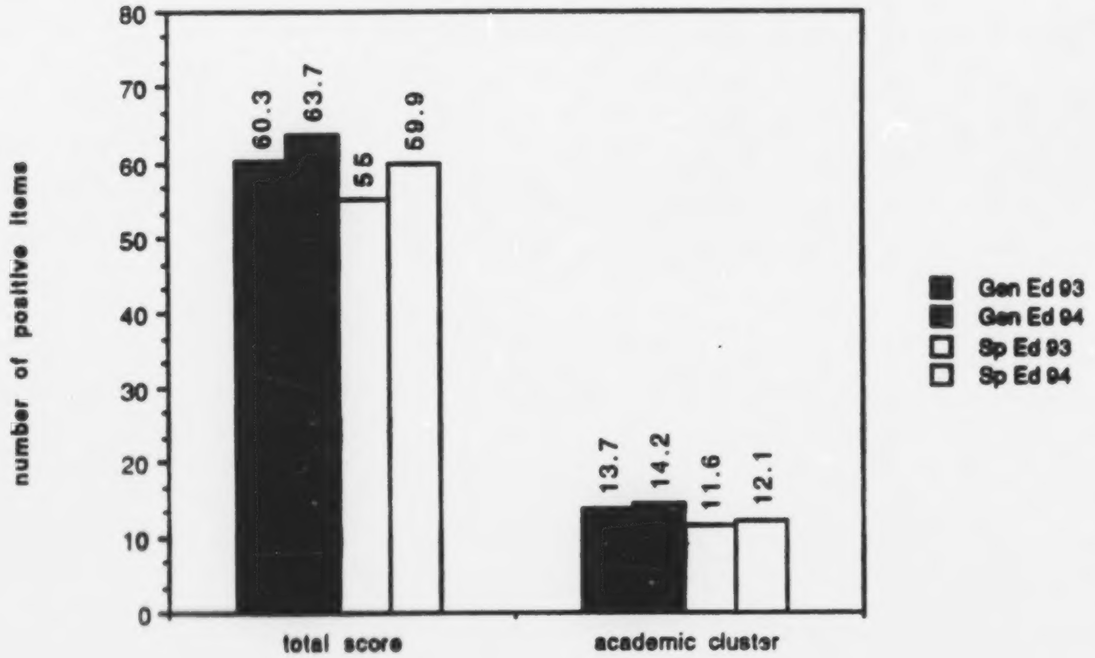

Figure 2: Piers Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale Means for 1993 and 1994

(References available from author upon request)

Barbara Luetke-Stahlman
University of Kansas Medical Center
Department of Hearing & Speech

Deaf Education in Kansas Public Schools

Introduction

Two-thirds of the school systems in the country are rural (Gold et al., 1993). Johnson, Pugachard, and Cook (1993) noted that recruitment and retention of rural/remote teachers is persistently difficult due to feelings of geographic and professional isolation. Davis (1987) found that "isolationism" increases because teachers have restricted assistance in program planning and support. Gold et al., (1993) cited that communication barriers among staff lead to feelings of isolation as well. Both groups suggested "peer collaboration" as a mechanism of interaction and mutual problem-solving to better serve students. However, Wengerd (1994) reported that most teacher training programs for certification in deaf education don't include the competencies needed to collaborate or to work optimally in rural and remote areas.

Deafness in Kansas

At present, 83% of Kansas School Districts meet the criteria for "rural" defined by the U.S. Department of Education. Directors of Special Education, surveyed by the author in 1991, indicated both a shortage and difficulty with retention of teachers of the deaf available in rural Kansas. Fifteen of 22 respondents documented increases in the number of deaf and hard-of-hearing children in their district. Teacher of the deaf shortages reported in the survey to State Directors of Special Education were verified in a report regarding the "Attrition of Special Education Personnel in Vacancies" (Hodges, 1991). Attrition rates are apparent in all areas of special education in the state, including deaf education. Reasons for attrition are not clear but it is apparent that personnel shortages in deaf education continue to be a problem in Kansas and require innovative use of existing training resources.

Dissertation work by Maile (1994) demonstrated that when experts in deafness in the 28 school districts in Kansas that serve students who are D/HH were asked to rate their programs with regard to national standards, services in the state were bleak at best. However, recent federal support for training in deafness has enabled the university to provide education to both local future teachers of the deaf as well as rural teachers to the deaf. Courses about consultation, program and curricular adaptions, language and literacy needs, sign and multicultural needs are standard component of the urban KU program. The director of the program has written recent papers on the roles and responsibilities of teachers of the deaf in inclusive settings-with attention to many of the specific activities shared in this paper.

Materials provided can assist those in public school settings in designing an appropriate and/or inclusive education for more children who are D/HH. Materials can be used so that general education personnel are fortified, their talents and energies utilized (Fuchs and Fuchs, 1994) to appropriately serve all children. Tools have been developed to assist in the learning of sign by all members of the school community, to adapt the program as well as the curriculum, to improve the social environment so language mode differences don't negatively impact friendships, to establish language policies involving sign use, and to respect and actively recruit involvement by deaf adults (Luetke-Stahlman, 1994). This information might benefit administrators, teachers, related service providers, and parents who are in need of such training (Hasazi et al., 1994).

Materials provided are a result of project Rural Deaf Education which also allowed deaf education faculty at the University of Kansas to become skilled with training over interactive/compressed video, to adapt four courses into long distance "correspondence-like" courses, and to develop both beginning and intermediate sign courses on video tape (with written support). Eight teachers, trained by that project, are now working in rural/remote communities in Kansas and approximately 22 additional teachers and more than 100 related services providers in Kansas have now expressed an interest in certification.

Topics

Materials provided discuss 1) best practices in deaf education with rural adaptations; 2) programmatic and curricular modifications; 3) an inclusion checklist (adapted from professionals in Austin, Texas); a list describing numerous videos available from the author on a wide range of topics related to deafness (e.g., reading, English language assessment, speech, audition, socialization, etc.); and 4) a list of formal English language assessment tools.

Information as to why teachers of the deaf should be hired and a handout on student-interpreter relationship is also included.

"Best Practice" Recommendations for the Non-Exclusion of Students Who are Deaf or Hard-of-Hearing

In November, 1992, the U.S. Department of Education issued a policy statement in the Federal Register. It stated that school personnel were to act with caution before placing children who were deaf or hard of hearing with hearing peers. In the "notice of policy guidance", Education Secretary Lamar Alexander stated that many schools must interpret the "least restrictive environment" (LRE) clause of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; IDEA (formerly the Education for all Handicapped Children Act passed in 1976-77), and needed to place more emphasis on IDEA's mandate to offer an **"appropriate education."** The notice of policy further clarified that any setting, including the general classroom or school environment that prevents a child who is deaf from receiving an appropriate education that meets his/her education and social needs, is not the LRE for that child. Nevertheless, approximately 79% of students who are deaf or hard of hearing (D/HH) are currently "included" or educated in public school settings (Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act (1989). The term "full-inclusion", has been defined by the National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) to be that inclusion in which all students attend their home school with their age and grade age peers. The popularity in use of this model has made it all the more important that teachers of the deaf work with administrators to ensure the following sequence of activities occur: that students who are D/HH are appropriately assessed that, their needs are adequately documented, that the required supports and services are provided, and that an appropriate placement is recommended based on those needs. This sequence and not one that begins with discussion regarding placement, ensures an appropriate education. The following recommendations are provided to assist parents, administrators, and teachers in providing an appropriate program for deaf and hard of hearing students who are D/HH.

(materials and references from author upon request)

Rebecca Newcom Belcher
New Mexico State University
Gadsden Independent School District
Las Cruces, New Mexico 99001

ABSTRACT

Recently, a great deal of discussion and controversy has been generated regarding fully inclusive education for students with disabilities. Proponents of inclusive education have questioned the effectiveness of pull-out programs and a dual system of education. The present study is a result of a grant award for action research from Eastern New Mexico State University. Two teachers, Susie Townsend and Rebecca Newcom Belcher, during the 1992-1993 school year conducted action research on including special education students with a general education classroom on a limited basis. The goal was to empower students to reach their own potential for interaction in group settings so that they would become contributing members, and to expand knowledge, appreciation, and enjoyment of science and social studies while evaluating the appropriateness of inclusion and alternative assessment for this student population. At the conclusion of the research it was determined that cooperative learning was an effective means of inclusion for the special education students.

THE USE OF INCLUSION AND ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT TEACHING OF SCIENCE AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Recently, a great deal of discussion and controversy has been generated regarding fully inclusive education of students with disabilities. Proponents of inclusive education have questioned the effectiveness of pull-out programs and a dual system of education. In general, proponents of inclusive education cited the unnecessary segregation and labeling of children combined with the ineffective practice of mainstreaming, which splinters a student's academic and social life, as justification for removing the current dual system (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1992).

The present study was an effort research the appropriateness of inclusion and alternative assessment in the teaching of science and social studies within one classroom in a rural, culturally and linguistically diverse school. While this philosophy has gained widespread support, relatively little attention has been paid to its implementation within an isolated, rural, and relatively economically poor state. Implementation of inclusive education within a rural state will, of necessity, begin with educators and administrators, on a small scale. It is with this attitude that the action research was begun.

Introduction

Congress stated during research for the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (IDEA), that there were over 8 million children with disabilities in the United States and that more than one half of them did not receive appropriate educational services. In addition, state and local educational agencies' financial resources were inadequate to meet the special education needs of children with disabilities. The purpose of IDEA was to ensure that all children with disabilities had access to a free appropriate public education (FAPE) which included special education and related services as needed by the child [20 USC §1400(b)(1-8)(c)].

Regular Education Initiative (REI)

A reform movement, whose roots were within special education, designed to provide a FAPE for all children was the Regular Education Initiative or REI (York, Vandercook, MacDonald, Heise-Neff, & Caughey, 1992). The REI provided instructional services for children with disabilities delivered in the regular classroom setting. The REI leaders had several distinguishable goals. The first goal was to merge special and general education into one system. The second goal was to increase dramatically the number of students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms using full-time mainstreaming across the continuum. The third goal was to strengthen the academic achievement of students with mild and moderate disabilities in addition to underachievers (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Fuchs and Fuchs (1994) found that REI supporters generated tactics to restructure general and special education while moving greater numbers of students with disabilities into general education. The first tactics involved acquiring waivers from state and federal rules and regulations for restructuring the use of special education resources. Another tactic was to modify the nature of the continuum of services generally advocated in special education to determine least restrictive educational placement of students with disabilities. The elimination of the bottom (homebound, residential placement) and the near-top (resource rooms) of the continuum was advocated by REI proponents. Finally, it was proposed that large-scale mainstreaming would be accomplished best by eliminating the near-top of the continuum. To succeed at large-scale mainstreaming the general education classrooms had to become more academically and socially responsive settings for students with disabilities. This was first accomplished by individualizing instruction for all students, and secondly by developing cooperative learning. The advocates of REI were reluctant to alienate special education teachers and administrators. Despite calls for waivers, modifications of the continuum of services, reorganization of general education classrooms, most REI reforms did not advocate an end to special education. Special Education teachers were to become co-teachers with the general education staff (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Based upon the latest reports from the Carnegie Council, the Holmes Group, the National Commission on Excellence in Education, and the National Governors' Association report, the tactics advocated by REI seemed consistent with the findings of these reports. Therefore, it was assumed that general education would welcome the REI, but general education was uninterested in the REI (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Inclusion

An outgrowth of the REI was the Full Inclusion movement. Inclusion, inclusive schooling, inclusive education were all terms of the movement to educate all children in general education (York, et al., 1992). Increasingly, special education reform was symbolized by the term inclusive schools. It meant decentralization of power and the concomitant empowerment of teachers and building-level administrators, a fundamental reorganization of the teaching and learning process through innovations like cooperative learning and thematic teaching, and the redefinition of professional relationships within buildings (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Based on the extensive research and the experiences of Pearpoint, Forest, & Snow (1992), inclusive education came to mean for them children being educated in heterogeneous, age-appropriate classroom, school and community environments which maximized the social development of everyone. The vision of full inclusion was based on the belief that all individuals had the right and the dignity to achieve their potential within society. A fully inclusive school valued friendships and diversity as significant outcomes of schooling. Skills and values essential to successful participation in a diverse, integrated society were acquired during an individual's time in school. A school which fully included all members of the school community fostered interdependence, respected and valued diversity, and taught the skills necessary to bring out the best in everyone. Full inclusion, through circles of support, maps, and friendship, nourished success through interdependence and collaboration (Pearpoint, Forest, & Snow 1992).

The growing impetus for inclusive education was found in the following statistics which described special education students who were generally classified as mildly or moderately disabled and generally mainstreamed into the general education classroom for part or all of the school day. Only 57% of students in special education graduate with either a diploma or a certificate of graduation; 12% of youth with disabilities have been arrested at some time in their lives, as compared with 8% in the general population; only 13.4% of all youth with disabilities, aged 15 to 20, are living independently up to two years after leaving secondary school as compared to 33.2% of the general post-secondary school population; and only 49% of out-of-school youth with disabilities aged 15-20 are employed between 1 and 2 years after high school (National Association of State Boards of Education, 1992).

Many proponents of inclusion were in favor of abolishing special education and the continuum of services. Pearpoint et al., (1992) proponents of eliminating the continuum, were quick to point out that while they wish to see an end to special education teachers and students, they are not advocating dumping or moving children with disabilities into general education classrooms without appropriate support. Specialists of all types would follow the children into the mainstream, where services would be available to all students. In contrast to inclusion's focus on socialization skills, attitude change, and positive peer relations, REI advocates' primary concern was to strengthen the academic performance of students with disabilities and those at risk for school failure (D'Alonzo & Boggs, 1990; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

Top-down educational reforms of the past have fallen short of the goal of improving the learning of New Mexico's students. Recent initiatives by the New Mexico State Legislature and the State Board of Education supported and encouraged school reform which were developed by the local community , e.g., site based management. The New Mexico State Department of Education recently passed *Standards for Excellence* which allowed schools to develop essential outcomes for all students and it provided a framework for each school to achieve individual state accreditation (New Mexico State Department of Education, 1991). The State Department of Education's Administrative Policy on Full Inclusion (1991) was as follows:

> The New Mexico State Department of Education believes that all students must be educated in school environments which fully include rather than exclude them. School environments include all curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular programs and activities. Full inclusion means that all children must be educated in supported, heterogeneous age-appropriate, natural, child-focused classrooms, school and community environments for the purpose of preparing them for full participation in our diverse and integrated society. The New Mexico State Department of Education supports, encourages and will facilitate emerging local practices and creative utilization of resources which address the full inclusion of all children in the local school and community. (p. 2)

Because the New Mexico State Department of Education supported inclusion, each school in New Mexico was challenged to adopt and implement practices which promote inclusion. The New Mexico State Department of Education recognized that the values and beliefs associated with inclusive education cannot be mandated. Consequently, it was the administrative policy of the New Mexico State Department of Education to support, influence, encourage, suggest and guide the local efforts of schools to evaluate and assess its values and beliefs about learning, children, and the school.

The purpose of this study was to empower students to reach their own potential for interaction in group settings so that they would become contributing members, and to expand knowledge, appreciation, and enjoyment of science and social studies. This study was one of many local efforts to evaluate and assess the values and beliefs of inclusion and alternative assessment through the vehicle of science and social studies.

METHOD

Site

The site for the inquiry is Anthony Elementary, one of 11 elementary schools located in the Gadsden School District (GISD). Gadsden is an isolated, rural district between two thriving metropolitan centers in southern New Mexico. It consists of 1300 square miles and consists mainly of economically deprived, Hispanic families. Gadsden serves over 11,000 students, with a Special Education population of nearly 10.0 percent. With 14 school sites, GISD is the fastest growing and 6th largest school district in New Mexico. 95% of the student population is Hispanic, 4% is Anglo, and the remaining 1% is other ethnicities, with 100% of the students receiving free lunch and breakfast. GISD has identified 67% of its student population as being *at risk* . The high school dropout rate is 10.1% and the district ranks 55th in the state ACT scores while 84% of the 10th grade students passed the New Mexico High School Competency Exam. The district has Chapter I, Title I, Bilingual programs, and Special Education programs on a continuum from severe to gifted and talented, yet the student achievement is not at a level acceptable to teachers, parents, or administration. The instructional programs of the Gadsden schools are designed to emphasize and enhance the acquisition of basic skills in language, reading, writing, and mathematics. Concurrent with basic skill mastery, additional skills involving response to change, critical thinking, and managing information are stressed. The district has a large percentage of students whose dominate language is Spanish, many of whom begin their school careers speaking no English. The district has implemented a bilingual program in the kindergarten through twelfth grade. The secondary schools stress the academic skills necessary for college preparation and skills necessary for the non-college bound students. The goals of these programs are to develop a solid foundation in all of these skills so that Gadsden's students can be prepared to succeed in a rapidly changing and highly technological society. Anthony Elementary, 1 of 11 elementary schools in the Gadsden School District, currently has a student population of 1,500 with a teaching faculty of 100. The vision of Anthony's faculty is to increase student achievement by empowering the students to achieve at their full potential through the utilization of diverse and dynamic learning environments.

Subjects

The student population included 24 second grade students and four 3 grade students. Included in this population were 2 students with a specific learning disability, 6 students identified as gifted, and 1 student identified with a severe emotional/behavioral disturbance.

Procedures

The teachers submitted a grand application to Eastern New Mexico State University requesting funding to complete an action research project to empower students to reach their own potential for interaction in group settings so that they would become contributing members, and to expand knowledge, appreciation, and enjoyment of science and social studies. This study was one of many local efforts to evaluate and assess the values and beliefs of inclusion and alternative assessment through the vehicle of science and social studies.

Upon receipt of the grant award the two teachers agreed to participate in a team teaching format. Classes were scheduled for Tuesdays and Thursdays from 11:00 to 11:55 a.m. Students were placed in heterogeneous groups of four, with special emphasis placed on behavior, special education placement, gender, personalities, levels of productivity. The curriculum included science and social studies with an emphasis on visual and manipulatives. Learning activities included a field trip, science experiments, discussions, and projects. Cooperative learning was utilized across these experiences.

After lesson content was selected, pretests and post test were designed to assess student' abilities to work in groups and their knowledge of science and social studies. Social skills were documented through teacher observation. To simplify documentation of social skills, the researchers devised a rating system with a scale of 0 to 10, 10 being the highest score possible, after generalization of the skill was observed in a natural setting. Academic outcomes were assessed with pretests and post test for each lesson.

RESULTS

Social skills improved in basic and advanced areas, which included such goals as maintaining an inside voice, sharing ideas, and the use of humor. The student identified with a emotional/behavioral disturbance improved socially. By the end of the project the student had generalized his appropriate behavior to other classroom content areas and tasks, such as remaining in his desk during instructions, and working in a cooperative manner during reading class. One student identified as gifted exhibited a great deal of difficulty with working in a group. He frequently made comments like," they are so slow....why do I have to wait for them... they don't know what they are doing..." This student required some one on one instruction in cooperative group procedures and appropriate group behavior strategies. This student make the most growth in cooperative learning skills of any of the students in the project. At the end of the project, he was anxious to begin another cooperative group project.

In Social Studies, the topics covered were Native Americans and the Regions of the United States. The students' knowledge and appreciation of New Mexican cultures was expanded through a field trip and class activities. Students expressed a great interest in Native American cultures of New Mexico. Their interest expanded the unit from a two week study to a four week study which continued after the grant period had ended.

In Science, students showed the most gains in their knowledge of the scientific method. Each group prepared a science project according to science fair procedures. Then the project was displayed in the classroom and cafeteria. Each group presented their project to the rest of the class while "teaching" their classmates how to conduct the experiment. The post test scores on science consistently showed growth of 30%.

The use of portfolios as a means of assessment was helpful in allowing the researchers to compile annotated notes, interview logs, behavior logs, and checklists as well as samples of students' work. The portfolios for the teachers, students, and parents, proved to be a valid tool for evaluation. The parents and students especially enjoyed have a part in the evaluation process. The students were often more critical than the teachers on the evaluation of items to included in the portfolio.

For the students identified as gifted there was not a great increase in academic skills in the pre and post test scores. But the ability of these students to interact in a group setting with appropriate social skills and empaty was increased. The students identified as general education students growth in academics was improved through the cooperative learning groups as indicated by the increase in post test scores. The two students identified as having a learning disability also increased their post test scores significantly on all academic areas of instruction.

DISCUSSION

Study of this micro-sample of inclusion indicated that the academic aspects of inclusion were easier to adopt than were the social interactions. True differences were found in children's ability to interact. The one gifted student who demonstrated the most gains among the gifted children received additional instruction on stress relieving techniques and received social reinforcement when he exhibited positive behaviors of kindness, patience, and a willingness to share. His inability to interact in a group setting necessitated the additional instruction on stress reduction and the social reinforcement. Students identified with specific learning disabilities exhibited growth in verbal interactions and a reduction in learned helplessness behaviors. The student diagnosed as severely emotionally/behaviorally disordered showed gains in basic level social skills, such as keeping his hands to himself, staying with his group, sharing, and talking a normal voice. Students from the general education class showed improvements also in the basic social skills. All of the students, except for those identified as gifted, showed improvement in academics skills in science and social studies.

The conclusion drawn from this action research was that cooperative learning was an effective means of inclusion. Its application allows for different levels of ability and provides opportunities to teach social skills in an atmosphere where they could be practiced and generalized. The team teaching arrangement was also effective as it involved both teachers as facilitators and observers, roles that could be alternated. Brief daily lesson planning sessions were also found to be essential.

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June Tweddle and Susan Johnson
Parent STAR of Nevada , FAST TRAC, &
Southern Nevada Rural Parent Network
Overton, Nevada

FENCES: ARE WE TEARING DOWN OR BUILDING FENCES IN OUR RURAL AREAS

Parents, teachers, and professionals can work together in rural communities. Together they can identify common needs and successfully achieve collaborated goals when they work as as team. By using correlation and comparisons of different types of fences and relationships, all community members can be exposed to methods of tearing down barriers, positive repairing of damaged relationships and building new avenues and bridges for success. The presenters are parents and their perspective reminds all community members the ultimate focus on any and all changes needed to build, repair or create systems must be for the families and the individual with disability. Actual daily participation in all needs for their family and their child with a disability qualifies parents to be heard with recognition and consideration.

According to Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), parents are an integral part and equal partners of the team when decisions are made for their child with disabilities and their families. Many issues are constant whether you reside in rural or urban areas. There are, however, unique problems in each rural community and shared decision making strategies should be developed by it's members. Identification of needs surveys, communication techniques, access to service systems, cost effective services, positive inclusion plans, transition programs and independent living issues will be discussed and way participants can incorporate ideas for their won community.

Many professional and service providers have done research and have written articles and plans for rural communities. Without this knowledge, many individuals with disabilities and their families would not have received services. However, parents perspective and actual participation has not been recognized or considered equal by many teachers, professionals and service providers in many communities. More families are settling in rural our outlying towns instead of larger cities. More families are seeking the inclusion of their child with disabilities in educational settings, community activities and job sites. More families are aware of transition preparation, therapy services available, and specific needs of their of their children to achieve them. Through daily living, parents become creative and develop innovative techniques and programs to deal with the educational and service systems to meet their child's needs. IDEA states parents are equal partners and we are prepared to assume that role.

With the passage of ADA, IDEA, and mandatory formation of state service collaborations, the participation of parents and individuals with disabilities has increased. Parents as equal partners in decision-making situations is not always accepted. In the past, entities and organizations were only involved in their own service. How can communities change, rebuild, repair, or create plans for meeting present and future needs of rural families?

This is our picket fence Picket fences are decorative, traditional, but require periodic painting and are relatively fragile. It also has a beautiful gate to welcome you and to make you feel at home

A bilingual parent stopped by my house, her son had just been suspended from school, she was very upset and didn't know what to do. The young man is in 6th grade, he is at a middle school, in a diversely handicapped classroom, with some inclusion into the regular program for classes such as PE and art. The student is multiply impaired, with ADHD. The principal had scheduled a meeting for the following day so we could get together, decide what to do about the behaviors. The parent and I sat down and compiled a list of things we felt we needed to look at, possible reasons for the behaviors that were happening at school.

The meeting was attended by the parent, a translator, the principal, the teacher, the special ed facilitator, and myself as a friend and advocate. The principal reassured the mother that we were all here to find a way to keep John in school, understand what was causing the behaviors, and then try to find way to stop the behavior. Question 1 was what is happening when John misbehaves, what has been taking place up until that point. The teacher started telling us about the class schedule, and what was being done and when it was walked through step by step we all realized about the same time that John was shutting down about the same time every time, they were breaking the work into 15-20 minute sections, however he was getting 2 hours and 15 minutes of solid academics before he got a real break, so we as a team worked out some real hands on types of things John could do, then we modified the schedule a little, the class would do 2 academics then instead of reading they would do science. Since the class is a small it was decided that they would go outside, take a walk, look at the different types of trees, leaves, rocks, clouds, they could gather things to make art projects with, the could talk about the weather, then after 30 minutes or so they could go play catch, or go into the game room for the remaining 20 minutes. Then they would go back and do the reading program. We also discussed the fact that when the behavior became unmanageable the parent or his aunt would be called to come and take John home for the remainder of the day. We decided he would tell the teacher "I don't feel good" and then he would be allowed to go look at some special books, work on puzzles, something of his choice, however that time would be limited and he would have to return to work. Our plan seemed to work for awhile, and then the Dr. decided to take him off his medicine, as you can imagine his behavior became totally unmanageable, he got very physical, he was hitting, kicking, bitting, throwing things, breaking things we were all once again called to find a way to solve the problem.

The principal had taken the time to read John's entire file, she found some very interesting things. When he had been assessed several years before some recommendations had been made that were never followed through with, when John was at the elementary school whenever he didn't feel like working rather than try to keep him motivated they allowed him to leave the area and go do whatever he chose to do and if he felt like returning he did if not he didn't. He had total control, and that was not acceptable to any of us. She had also discovered something that I felt was a problem from the beginning, John had some real problems with comprehension, the individual that conducted the test felt like John was very good at reading peoples feelings by their tone of voice, their facial expressions, and as we talked to him and said now this is what we are going to do, do you understand, he's smiling and saying yes, then when the voice and expression change and you discuss the negative things he says John sorry, teacher mad. The principal had already started paper work to have the behavioral intervention team come out and observe John, for another assessment by the bilingual psychologist, and a thorough evaluation by a bilingual speech therapist. We also discussed the fact that John liked being sent home, because his aunt would let him go play, watch TV, and other things he liked to do. It was decided that 2 days a week the mother was off work and would be on call, 1 day the ESL aide was at the school, and the other 2 days a week I would be on call, if John shut down like he had been doing lately, we would be called, John would be taken into an empty classroom, where there was nothing he would get hurt on and nothing he could destroy, and we would just observe him, until such time as the behavior stopped and he was ready to go back to class. It worked out great, every once in awhile they have a minor problem, but the worst has stopped. It made a great deal of difference when we all worked together and we looked at John as an individual. The principal took the extra time to look at the total picture, and that made so much of the difference for the team and especially John.

This is our split rail fence, it is attractive, inexpensive, fairly easy to erect, it requires less materials and will last longer than many other kinds of fences

We looked at Shawns goals, what he wants to do and classes he wants to take, looked at what teachers taught those classes and requested a meeting with all of them. I refused to stay if they were not all there His special ed teacher knows Shawn and it is important that the other teachers understand his disability and his abilities.

I wrote a letter regarding Shawn, his disability, how he became disabled, some of what he has been through in his life, why we felt the way we did about inclusion, some information on C.P. from NICHY, our hopes and dreams, along with Shawn's hopes and dreams, and I told them that if we all worked together we could make this work, challenge him, maybe he won't be able to do it but he will have learned from trying. I gave the teachers the letter a week before the meeting, so they could read it and maybe begin to understand why we were going to try full inclusion.

We held our meeting, talked about the letter, our concerns, the teachers concerns, we had one teacher that was very vocal about not wanting Shawn in her journalism class, we stood our ground, because this was one of the classes Shawn really was excited about. She tried to talk her way out of it, she said "English 1 would be better, he could learn so much more, and it was a rather hands on class". I said, "He wants to take journalism, and he was the reporter for his 4-H club and had articles in the local paper, we had to edit them but he wrote them." She replied "That she really felt English would be better." We said "Fine you might be right and it would probably help him with his computer class and journalism, so we agree and he can take your English 1 class and then journalism right after that." Needless to say she was not thrilled and during the summer she talked to several people hoping they could talk us into changing our minds, well they supported us and told her she should just get used to it.

School started with much anticipation and fear. Shawn goes to his classes (by himself) we have assigned a peer tutor, and his special ed teacher checks on him, the teacher went with him 2nd hour to English, Shawn took a seat and the teacher told his teacher he could leave since he was right next door, well the special ed teacher got busy and didn't get back to check on Shawn, he figured he would walk into the English class and the teacher would be furious with him, however he walked in Shawn, his peer tutor and the teacher were sitting down talking and the teacher said "Don't worry he can walk to journalism with me." They get along great and he loves journalism. He was absent from school for about 5 days and this teacher called him on his TDD to see how he was and let him know she missed him and was looking forward to his coming back.

Keeping in touch, working together to make modifications, helping with assignments, it works both ways. That has been hard on both parts, they are not used to having to stay in this close of contact with a parent and I don't want to be a worry wart. But we are working it out. Shawn is looking forward to next year, he is looking at what classes he wants to take.

This is our barbed wire fence: It is unattractive, inexpensive, dangerous, and is illegal in many areas. It is put up to keep somethings in and others out, we replaced it with a chain link fence. It still has some dangers, but you can see through it, they have gates that are easy to open and go through.

I wrote a letter to our local paper regarding the time limits that the school district has to provide an assessment on a student. You see there are 200 students on the list our school psychologist has. How is one person ever going to get 200 assessments done in a years time, how many of these kids are going to continue to be humiliated, frustrated, angry, behavior problems, allowed to fail and the list goes on. I wanted to make parents aware that by law in the state of Nevada the school district has 45 school days. I believe that if enough parents begin to be squeaky wheels that the district will begin to pay attention, and make some changes.

The following week a letter from a member of the community appeared and he was very angry at these laws that allow for assessment on demand, and how he received his education on the families back porch at the end of a strap, he read much more into the article than was actually there. He called the children misfits, and make remarks about how they were taking away from programs like sports, music, new buildings, books, etc. He felt like these were problems that should be handled at home and not be the responsibility of the schools.

This continues for 3 more weeks and boy did it stir up our little community. I couldn't go anywhere, or talk to anyone on the phone without being asked who this guy was, what he had against me, and they couldn't wait to see what was in next weeks paper. This mans remarks did get very personnel at times, and he did have some information regarding situations with my children that he should not have had, and he has no children in the school system. He was also being given a very biased opinion as to what really happened and it was very hard for me not to let it get to me. I wanted to respond to the personnel attacks, however I didn't. You see because of his continued letters, and the response from the community, disability issues were brought out. These are issues that were never discussed in our valley, and now everyone was talking about it. I had phone calls from parents that needed information, and I was more than glad to provide it. We held a workshop that was very well attended. Our community is moving into the real world. Other parents are coming out of the closet that were afraid to before.

Someone asked me how I was able to survive the attack, I said if I had let it get personnel, I would have let it become a battle between him and I and the entire reason I wrote the letter would have been lost. That reason was the children, they are what is important, I don't want another student to fall through the cracks, I want them to be successful, feel good about themselves, I want other people to understand that we all have something special to offer, if we will all just give everyone a chance.

Block wall or cinder block fence: We were afraid we were going to have to destroy the block wall, however we found a way to go over it

My son had been diagnosed as learning disabled when we lived in California when he was in 4th grade, however he was at grade level so we did nothing, when he was in 6th grade he was tested again and found to be below grade level and was placed in a resource pullout program, however within a month we moved to Colorado because of my husbands job. I had not been given information on learning disabilities I was told don't worry about it we will work with him at school. When we got to Colorado, all I knew was Trent had some kind of visual memory deficit or something like that, I didn't know my laws, there was only 2 months of school left and Trent was actually doing as well if not better than most of the kids in his class in some areas, the school my kids were at in Cal was about a year ahead of the school in Colorado. We agreed to watch him in 7th grade in case any problems developed. It didn't take long before they came to the surface, with the help of the counselor we enrolled him in a peer tutor program, and then he would go to school early 2 mornings a week and stay late 2 days. This way he did his homework at school and if he needed help the teacher was there. Homework was a real problem, he would loose it, forget it, finish it but not turn it in, I would sit with him at home, so I knew it was done, but it just never made it to class. This program worked great, he went from D's and F's to A's, B's, and a couple C's.

We moved to Las Vegas for 8th grade, he started having problems, I went to school and talked to the counselor she said "It's a new school, he needs to adjust to the changes, even new teachers have to take time to adjust. So we worked through 8th grade, then comes 9th grade and they move to a high school, well once again, it's the new school, high school is very different give it time. We had ups and downs. I have always said the only thing consistent about Trent is that he is consistently inconsistent. Over Christmas Break we moved to the small community of Moapa Valley, Trent did ok, but he had two teachers that took him under their wings and helped in out. If he didn't understand something in any class he could go to either one of them and they would help. But gradually things began to go down hill. I requested an assessment, and was told that the counselor had discussed it with his teachers and they didn't feel like there was a problem other than the fact that Trent didn't pay attention in class, he didn't turn all his work in, he didn't complete assignments, he didn't come to class prepared, he seemed to do a lot of daydreaming, one day he understood and the next day he said he didn't, it was the same old story, we tried some things at home, we tried weekly progress reports and that didn't work cause either he forgot or the teacher didn't give it back to him.

Finally when he was in 10 grade I made another request and was once again told it was not necessary, I said I wanted it done and I had made some contacts that provided me with information on Trent's rights. I wrote one last letter over the summer and said either test him before school starts or I will file for a due process, it was amazing how fast it got done, the report left something to be desired, in the meantime I had gotten copies of his assessments that were done in California and we used those to do a Section 504 placement. It took us sometime however we finally got it all done in Dec. of his junior year. By this time Trent was very frustrated with school, he was becoming somewhat of a behavior problem, and this being a small school, teacher had been talking about Trent and it was believed that he was a lazy student and what he needed was a swift kick in the butt. We kept him in all regular ed programs with modifications, some of the teachers were really good about the modifications and for others it didn't concern them in the least.

Trent got so frustrated he refused to return to school for his senior year, we looked at other options for him however none worked out. We had to look carefully at our options as Trent had already made one attempt on his life because of school pressures. We were determined he would finish school and we did a lot of talking about how we would do it. He needed first semester of 9th grade English, one semester of PE, one semester of an arts and humanities, a full year of senior English, and Government. In Aug of 1984 Trent was diagnosed with ADD and probably ADHD as a child, the Dr. asked me why he was not treated as a child, I told him, I had felt from almost the day we brought Trent home from the hospital that he was not a normal little boy, but no one listened to me, they would tell me just because Shawn (our oldest son has cerebral palsy) doesn't mean Trent is going to, or you just don't know what a normal active little boy is. I guess after years of trying to convince Dr's, teachers, friends and some family members that we decided this was just how Trent was and we just accepted that, but how much better life at home would have been had we known. Anyway Trent was put on medication and it was like having a new kid at home, it didn't really change him, but he was not as angry, he could remain calm, he no longer destroyed things, then tension in our house was gone.

Trent and I did a lot of talking about how we were going to get him through school, what it would take, what he needed. We finally agreed that he would take 9th grade and senior English and PE first semester at school, he would take government trough the school as an independent study class, he would get the assignments weekly, they record the class and he would get a copy of the tapes, he would take the tests with the resource teacher he gets along with. Yes we did hand pick Trents teachers, because he needs to get along with his teachers, they need to understand him and what he has been through. We meet the 2nd day of school to write the 504 plan everyone on the team agreed that this was what Trent needed. When the plan was presented to our principal he said, "Absolutely not, I'll deny it, I'll fight it every step of the way." I told our facilitator that I didn't have time to screw around with this man and we are going to use Trent's ADD diagnosis and reclassify him as other health impaired and put him on an IEP, so we called the school nurse, the school psychologist, and scheduled a meeting for the following week, I got the paper from his Dr., filled out all the school forms and when we got together the following week it was pretty simple. We finished Trent and I went home and I got a call from our facilitator, she told me when she tool the program to the counselor he told her, "This isn't a program we offer at this school." Our facilitator told me June do what ever you have to do I'm tired of fighting. I went into the school the following morning to principal, we discussed the issues and I told him they couldn't deny the program, he told me it was a complete IEP because his representative didn't sign it. I told him it didn't matter the only people that were required by law to sign it did, Trent, the school district representative, a special ed teacher and myself. He then told me they never denied the program they simply don't offer it at this school, I was getting no where and we both agreed that we wanted someone from the district office to come and and settle this once and for all. The following day of Special Education Administrative Specialist (SEAS) came out, our principal came into the meeting set straight across from me, pushed himself as far as he could from the table and still be at the table leaned back in the chair, crossed his arms across his chest crossed his legs. I read a 4 page letter regarding why this placement was best for Trent, I had copies of IDEA, and had highlighted sections of it that pertained to Trent's placement, I handed them to the principal as I read them and he took them and dropped them on the table. The SEAS then said that the district would not accept the IEP, I asked if the IEP team agreed and signed it how the district could refuse it. They offered one compromise that was unacceptable, then they offered to pay for correspondence, that was fairly close to what we wanted, we were already 2 weeks into school and Trent needed to get started, it was either accept it or file for a due process and then we were another 6-7 weeks, we took the 2nd compromise, the new IEP was written and it was agreed that the school would provide the textbook on tape if necessary.

Trent was doing great he got all C's on his first 9 week report card, and had an 96% on his correspondence, it was about 3 weeks till he took his midterm. On Oct. 13 I wrote a letter requesting the tapes that he needed for the first semester, I sent a copy of the lesson plan because they don't go from chapter 1-25, I told them when we would need the tapes, we received 4 of the 7 chapters Trent needed in order to take his midterm, he knew he didn't do well and things began to go downhill. On Nov. 13 I made another written request for the tapes so Trent could have them to study over Christmas Break at this point there were 14 chapters he needed, we did receive a few more chapters and I was promised the rest of the book by the end of Nov. on the 7th of

Dec. I made another written request for the tapes, and then later that afternoon Trent received his midterm in the mail and he had gotten a 38% on it, well the world really fell apart for him. On Dec. 13 I received a phone call from the resource teacher and she informed me that they didn't have to provide the tapes, I said yes you do it is written into Trent's IEP and you and the principal both signed it, we he only agreed to do it out of the kindness of his heart, and we don't have to provide it. It was at this point that we filed due process, I honestly believed that the tapes would hit my door step in a hot minute and that was all we wanted. We got the final tape on Jan. 13, 1995, in the meantime my son had made another attempt on his life, his Dr. doubled his medication and added an antidepressant, he developed high blood pressure 150/100, he developed hypoglycemia, and refused to return to school because everyone knew what was going on and he was getting hassled, and the pressure continued to build. One teacher told him that he was parking in the wrong area and she was not afraid of his mom.

Now how did we work around the block wall that had been put up, how did we get Trent to come back to school. We met with Marsha Irvin who is the Assistant Superintendent of Special Student Services, she is the only person outside of the IEP team that listened to Trent and looked at him as an individual. She asked him what it would take to get him graduated, he was very skeptical and had no faith that she would do it. But she did, she worked with the district attorney and Trent's attorney and the drafted his IEP, we now have a young man who is doing 2 classes through correspondence, and one through the school with the aide of a tutor and he now never goes to school. All we wanted was the tapes, now the district had their attorney, Trent's attorney, the correspondence, the tutor who is a certified teacher in the classes Trent needs and he has 4 hours a week, plus we have a student who is on the rolls at the school but he never goes to class.

Some very positive things have come from all of this, Trent found that if you work within the system you will eventually find someone who cares and will take the time to listen, he has a much better understanding of the laws and how they work, he learned to advocate for himself. He has decided he wants to be either an attorney or an advocate. He wants to change things, he is going to pursue this through the court system because he wants things to change, he wants individuals to learn how serious these issues are. Our high school will be getting some much needed inservices on the laws relating to special education, disability awareness, and some sensitivity. For awhile I thought we would have to destroy the block wall, we didn't we built a stile. Oh the block wall is still standing and we will never be able to work together in regard to my children, but I have a way over the block wall. I can't go through it, or around it, we had to go over it. This is not my favorite way for things to be but sometimes it is unavoidable.

We accept that fences have been around for many years and will continue to be used, because they can be beautiful, and they do have many uses. However when we are dealing with individuals it is time to take down fences. Being parents from rural areas we see many different types of fences and we must find ways to work within the boundaries of those fences. Many times it is easy to do and others it is like hitting a brick wall. What we feel is important for everyone to remember is that parent, teachers, students, and administrators are all very important parts of a team. For many years we were all supposed to believe that teachers knew what was best for our children and that is changing. Let us never forget the reason we are on a team together. We are there to find what the individual students hopes and dreams are and the assist that student to reach his hopes and dreams to the best of his ability.

Jack T. Cole
R. Fletcher
Robert Gerke
Catherine Medina
New Mexico State University
Las Cruces, NM 88003-0001

THE PEN IS MIGHTIER THAN THE SWORD:
HOW TO GET PUBLISHED IN RSEQ

What motivates professionals to submit manuscripts for publication? According to Henson (1986), institutional pressure for tenure, promotion, and merit pay may be a major reason for submitting manuscripts, but it is not the only reason. Many professionals submit manuscripts out of their desire to share professional knowledge. In that sharing, he asvises authors to select the journal that most represents their specialized body of knowledge. So what is the specialized body of knowledge considered by the editors of the Rural Special Education Quarterly (RSEQ)?

Specialized Body of Knowledge

The Rural Special Education Quarterly began as a newsletter, under the title National Rural Research Newsletter (1979) out of Murray State University. By the sixth volume, second issue, the newsletter became the Rural Special Education Quarterly and was and is the only national scholarly publication solely devoted to rural special education issues (Pawlak, 1985).

Since its establishment as the Rural Special Education Quarterly in 1985, the RSEQ has been a nationally refereed journal. This means that all manuscripts are reviewed (a) anonymously, (b) by nationally recognized experts, and (c) using a preestablished rating scale. By being a referred journal the RSEQ is similar to 66% of other professional journals in the field of education. Because the review is conducted anonymously using a preestablished rating scale, we are also consistent with the top 50% of professional journals as cited in the Phi Delta Kappan in Henson's biannual survey of editors/publishers(1988). If then, as Henson (1985) suggests, authors who submit manuscripts need to know what specialized knowledge RSEQ editors are tapping, what topics do the editors of the RSEQ consider and what criteria are followed?

According to the published guidelines for authors the Rural Special Education Quarterly editorial staff review manuscripts to ascertain whether or not submitted manuscripts basically meet the following criteria:

1. Is the topic rural special education in its focus;
2. Is the target audience identified;
3. Does the manuscript represent a significant contribution to professional literature in the field of rural and small school education;
4. Does the manuscript demonstrate practicality; and
5. Does it have an applied focus.

Beyond the general emphasis on rural special education, a meta-analysis of ten years of publications conducted by RSEQ staff (Hepburn, 1992) resulted in the identification of four major publication strands: (a) exemplary models of service delivery; (b) research [e.g.,applied, theoretical, evaluative, case study]; (c) needs; and (d) policy and position papers. Within these four strands, some 45 domains were identified. The top ten domains are ranked in frequency of topics as follows (Table 1):

Table I

Rank	Topic	No. of Articles
1.	Research (basic, questionnaire, applied, evaluation, experimental)	126
2.	Preservice/Inservice	104
	Exemplary Service Models	104
3.	Recruitment and Retention	57
4.	Rural Values and Attitudes	50
5.	Families and Parents	48
6.	Multicultural Issues	41
7.	Supervision and Leadership	38
8.	Resources and Finances	36
9.	Transition	34
10.	Technology	31

The top ten ranking is consistent with the findings of Henson (1988), that 44% of all published articles report on research of some kind, suggesting that all writers should consider gathering data to use in their articles. However, findings of a review of the past 10 years of RSEQ publications, indicate that outside of these top ten topics, subjects can be varied so long as they address rural issues and contribute new knowledge to that specialized pool of information (e.g., early childhood, legal issues, teacher collaboration, disabilities by category, gifted, assessment and diagnosis, related services).

Once the topic is assessed for appropriateness, then the style and quality of each manuscript is assessed.

Style of Submission

As with most other professional journals in education, publication in the RSEQ requires a style that is consistent with the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (4th ed.). Generally RSEQ editors look for content and organization as well as non-biased language style of the manuscript. The editors look for orderly presentation of ideas, smoothness of expression, economy of expression, precision, and clarity. The structural style of manuscripts consisting of grammar, punctuation, spelling, use of abbreviations, headings and seriation, and accuracy of sources for referenced material should also be carefully addressed by authors.

RSEQ editors prefer manuscripts which have abstracts that do not exceed 100 words and contain figures and charts that are presented in final reproducible format (with figures or charts occupying no more than a single type written page). Editors expects the authors to submit tables exactly as they are to appear in the RSEQ or constructed in a manner which uses the required software with the appropriate tabs, columns, and settings. Photographs are not used.

Although the number of pages is not specified in RSEQ editorial guidelines, Henson (1988) indicates that the average number of pages for submitted manuscripts is ten. Lengthy manuscripts may be given less consideration because they are cost-prohibited.

So, what can you do to enhance the chance of acceptance of your manuscript for publication?

1. Make sure you read several issues of the RSEQ--Become familiar with the content and writing styles.
2. Direct your article to the readers not to the editor.
3. Write simply and clearly about the topic that you like and understand.
4. Be sure you are contributing new knowledge, techniques, or approaches from a distinctly new perspective.
5. Proof read your manuscript and edit out jargon, superfluous words, and errors.
6. Choose someone who is not directly involved in your work to review your article who resembles the typical reader of the RSEQ. Consider their recommendations for changes and accommodate your colleague's criticism.

Summary

With close attention given to the guidelines for publication as outlined on the inside cover of the RSEQ, manuscripts which (a) address targeted rural special education issues, (b) contribute new information to the body of knowledge, (c) use correct terminology, (d) are organized, and logically developed, and (e) contain appropriate writing styles, grammar, and non-biased language have a good chance of being selected. The review process takes approximately four months, and currently 60% to 70% of manuscripts are selected for publication. If your manuscript is selected, congratulation. If your manuscript is rejected, don't give up! Try, again, for "... the pen is mightier than the sword."

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APPENDIX A:

VIDEO PRESENTATIONS

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

1995 NATIONAL CONFERENCE

LAS VEGAS, NEVADA

VIDEO THEATER PRESENTATIONS

Title: **Effective Assessments: Making Use of Local Context**
Produced by: **Far West Laboratory**
Address: **730 Harrison St., San Francisco, CA 94107**
Telephone: **(415) 565-3000**
Running time: **16 minutes**
Order # VD-95-01
Cost: **$10.00**

Title: **The P.E.T. Twilight Zone**
Produced by: **Maine CITE, MAINE ARTS FOR ALL**
Address: **University of Maine at Augusta, 46 University Drive, Augusta, ME 04330**
Telephone: **(207) 621-3195**
Running time: **12 minutes**

Title: **Theater Without Limits**
Produced by: **Maine CITE, Maine Arts for All**
Address: **University of Maine, 46 University Drive, Augusta, ME 04330**
Telephone: **(207) 621-3195**
Running time: **26 minutes**

Title: **Building a Two Way Street: Home-School Communication in a Time of Change**
Produced by: **Partnerships for Achievement in Learning**
Address: **University of Vermont and Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union**
429 Waterman Building, Burlington, VT 05405-8429
Telephone: **(802) 656-8551**
Running time: **28 minutes, 30 seconds**
Cost: **$35.00**

Title: **Parent/Teacher Conferencing**
Produced by: **The School Study Council of Ohio**
Address: **The Poste Lake Building, Suite 100,**
665 E. Dublin-Granville Rd., Columbus, OH 43229
Telephone: **(614) 785-1163**
Running time: **27 minutes**
Cost: **$43.95, (monograph and trainer's manual also available)**

Title: **Interactive Television for Special Populations**
Produced by: **Panhandle Shar-Ed Video Network Interlocal Cooperative**
Address: **Oklahoma Panhandle State University, P.O. Box 430,**
Goodwell, OK 73939
Telephone: **(405) 349-2611**

Title: **Building Bridges: Joining Speech/Language Therapy and Classroom Learning**
Presented by: **J. Lindsey Stafford, Pioneer Park Elementary School**
Running time: **30 minutes**